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Selon le système en cours à la CECM, les directeurs d'école sont nécessairement choisis parmi les directeurs-adjoints; or les critères de candidature pour ceux-ci incluent un nombre d'années d'expérience d'enseignement et un diplôme universitaire, mais aucune qualification précise en administration scolaire. Comme il apparaît que la période où une personne exerce le rôle de directeur-adjoint n'offre généralement pas d'occasion de prendre une expérience valable en administration scolaire, le but de cette recherche-action est de tenter de trouver un rôle administratif valable pour le directeur-adjoint, qui puisse le préparer adéquatement à assumer les fonctions de directeur d'école.

A l'aide d'une revue de la documentation et de la recherche, l'auteur tente de relever les diverses habiletés et les concepts qui sont liés à une administration scolaire efficace que devraient posséder les futurs directeurs d'école; on a aussi tenu compte du contexte culturel et des besoins manifestés par les directeurs-adjoints. A cette fin, les directeurs-adjoints se sont vu soumettre deux tests, le "Leadership ability evaluation" (Russel M. Cassel et E. J. Stancik) et le "Leadership opinion questionnaire" (Edwin A. Fleishman), ainsi qu'un sondage d'opinion.

Après une expérience préliminaire, l'auteur a conçu le programme "Training Assistant Principalship (TAP), un programme de deux ans sous la supervision d'un directeur à plein temps. Essentiellement, le programme est centré sur l'application d'une habileté administrative donnée à la solution d'un problème administratif du ressort d'un directeur d'école.

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TABLE OF AN IN-SERVICE PROGRAM FOR ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE NATIONAL CATHOLIC SCHOOL CONFERENCE

A Dissertation Presented

By

L. Alan Stockton

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in
partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

October 1970

Major Subject: Education

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DESIGN OF AN IN-SERVICE PROGRAM FOR
ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS OF THE
ENGLISH SCHOOLS OF THE MONTREAL
CATHOLIC SCHOOL COMMISSION

A Dissertation

By

D. Alan Stockton

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October 1970

DEDICATION

To the [illegible] in my life

[illegible]

Diane

Joanne

Jennifer

A C K N O W L E D G E M E N T S

The author must express a debt of gratitude to many who have helped in this undertaking. Each administrator that he has met, be they effective or ineffective administrators, has contributed to the development of a deep interest in educational administration.

The whole spectrum of ideas and opinions concerning administration that echoed through the halls of the School of Education, University of Massachusetts, during the great planning year, 1968-69, offered many challenging dimensions to the concept of the true educational administrator.

A special word of thanks is due to the members of the faculty who have served as members of the author's advisory and dissertation committees: Dr. Ovid Parody, Nathaniel French, Dr. Richard Clark , and Dr. George Urch. Dr. Ray Budde has been a true major advisor throughout. His interest, concern, warmth and judgement have made the years at the University of Massachusetts and the preparation of this dissertation more meaningful and relevant than they might otherwise have been.

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Mrs. Allan Mackinnon has contributed more than the typing of this work. Her interest, attention to detail, knowledge of the required form, have been an invaluable help.

In many ways, the Montreal Catholic School Commission, especially the Department of English Classes, has made it all possible. It has released the author from his regular duties for more than a year and a half, invested several thousands of dollars in furthering his education, and made people and resources available in order that this dissertation might be completed.

Greater love than this no wife has, that she leave parents, friends, home and many comforts, to follow her husband to a strange town in another country. Thanks, Helen.

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C H A P T E R I

RATIONALE

A. Introduction

In September of each year, the schools of North America open their doors for the annual invasion of pupils, teachers, and principals. Many of these principals will be beginning a new career as an educational administrator. For one reason or another, they have chosen to leave the normal classroom responsibilities of a teacher and accept a different type of responsibility, that of school principal.

This changed role suggests two basic questions. What is an effective school principal? What constitutes relevant preparation for the principalship?

The field study described herein addresses itself to these two questions as they exist in a major metropolitan setting. In Montreal, the promotion procedures seem to place priority on the personal education of the candidate, and on his teaching experience. It is possible to qualify for the principalship without any credentials in educational administration.

Formal promotion requirements seem to ignore the concept of a principal as an educational administrator and leader. This quality of the school principal is the concern of this study. It should be noted that while this will serve as the central focus, there is no intention to ignore or dilute the importance of other qualities.

To ensure that this field study is reality-based and to produce findings that can have immediate use, this field study will deal with the preparation of the future principals of the English Schools of the Montreal Catholic School Commission.

B. The Montreal Situation

1. The Setting. The Montreal Catholic School Commission is the largest public school corporation in Canada and the twelfth largest in North America. It employs more that 8,350 teachers, 600 principals and assistant principals in its efforts to educate more than 187,000 pupils in its French and English Schools.[1] Its budget for the 1970-71 school year is $195,000,000.[2]

This field study deals primarily with the English Schools of this Commission. It should be noted, however, that any program implemented by either the French section or the English section is usually reviewed and often adopted by the other section.

There are 75 schools under the jurisdiction of the Department of English Schools. These are staffed by 75 principals, 40 assistant principals and about 1900 teachers. More than 44,000 pupils attend these schools.[3]

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[1]Montreal Catholic School Commission, Treasurer's Annual Report, 1969-70.

[2]Montreal Catholic School Commission, Minutes of Commission Meeting, July 16, 1970.

[3]Montreal Catholic School Commission, Treasurer's Annual Report, 1969-70.

School Commission by-law requires that principals be selected from the ranks of the assistant principals. Each year between five and seven such promotions take place. For appointment to the assistant principalship, the Commission has established certain requirements and procedures. A candidate for promotion to the assistant principalship of an elementary school must have completed seven years of successful teaching; for the high school assistant principalship nine years of successful teaching are required. In addition, candidates for these posts must have at least one university degree.

Satisfying these basic requirements, the candidates are interviewed by a committee of senior administrators who attempt to assess the individual's suitability for appointment as an assistant principal. This committee uses a point system to rank the candidates. Points are awarded for years of teaching experience, qualifications, and performance during the interview. These points are totaled, the candidates are ranked accordingly and appointments are made in rank order.[4]

2. The need for change. The newly appointed assistant principal soon finds that he is just that, "an assistant to the principal." His duties and responsibilities, if any, will depend upon the wishes of the principal. There is no guarantee that the assistant principal will be able to act as an educational administrator or leader, or even make any valid contribution to the learning activities that take place within the school.

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[4]Montreal Catholic School Commission, General Circular No. 24, 1968-69, and General Circular No. 25, 1968-69.

Furthermore, all future principals will be appointed from the ranks of the assistant principals. This period should be considered, in part, as a preparation for the principalship. Yet the usual duties assigned to the assistant principals do not offer such opportunity for this preparation.

Since this field study focuses on the preparation of future principals, it will of necessity concern itself with the present role of assistant principals. It is an attempt to make this period of the assistant principalship a valid administrative role in itself and a meaningful preparation for the principalship.

There are indications that others are also aware of this need. A letter from Dr. John T Hallhouse, Associate Director General and Director of English classes (Montreal Catholic School Commission), indicates the importance he attaches to this work and his personal interest in it. (See Appendix A.) His letters to Messrs. Malone and Murphy are further indications of the value he attaches to this field of study. (See Appendix B and Appendix C.)

On August 7, 1969, the Commission announced the creation of a new post, "to supervise and co-ordinate the preparation and application of programs in Pedagogy and School Organization offered to principals and administrative personnel."[1] The scope of this new post is wider than the specific needs of the assistant principals. However, the creation of such a post is an admission of the need for organized

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[1]Montreal Catholic School Commission, General Circular No. 46, 1968-69.

administrative training for all administrative personnel, assistant principals included.

C. Point of View

The period of assistant principalship is too vital a time in the career of future principals and senior administrators to be left to chance. This field study has been undertaken with the hope that this period can be made more meaningful. To accomplish this, it will be necessary to establish the nature of the principalship viewed as an administrative and leadership role. Once this is established, every effort will be made to assess the present potential of the assistant principals measured against this objective. This will be followed by a comprehensive plan that will help assistant principals make better use of their time as assistant principals.

With these objectives in mind, let us now examine the valid data sources for this field project. It should be noted that these data sources are used both to identify the various skills and concepts that constitute effective educational administration, to qualify these to the specific needs of the future principals in Montreal, and establish the parameters of the learning experiences that will help this group develop these skills and values.

CHAPTER II

DATA SOURCES

A. Validity of Data Sources

This field study is essentially a curriculum design since it will establish the learning experiences for assistant principals that will hopefully make this phase of their career more meaningful. It is essential, then, to establish the data sources that will serve as a foundation for this curriculum.

> Wherever the educational process goes on, there will be found two indispensable ingredients, a learner and a culture, for that which is learned results from the interaction of the two. . . .The learners and culture may be thought of as constituting the primary source of objectives, while professional literature may be regarded as a secondary source.[1]

Brackenbury,then, identifies three data sources for curriculum building: the learner, the culture and the literature. He seems to de-emphasize the value of the literature, yet John Goodlad warns, "Curriculum planners would do well to examine the existing literature before becoming involved in the problems and issues of planning. The wise explorer studies the maps of those who went before."[2]

Ralph Tyler places strong emphasis on the learners as data sources, for curriculum development. "A study of the learners themselves

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[1]Robert L. Brackenbury, "Guidelines to Help Schools Formulate and Validate Objectives" in National Planning in Curriculum and Instruction, Ole Sand, editor, (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1967),p. 96.

[2]John I. Goodlad, The Changing School Curriculum (New York: Ford Foundation, 1966), p. 30.

would seek to identify need changes in behavior patterns of the students. . . ."[3] Any relevant curriculum then should result from a study of the literature, the learner and the cultural setting.

B. Literature

1. Administration - Historical Development. It is relatively easy to list the contemporary concepts and ideas of the leading authorities in administrative theory. However, for the purposes of this study a more meaningful understanding of the current state of the art may be obtained from an historical analysis of administrative and leadership theories.

Early Writings. Much of the terminology now in use in administrative language and considered to be of recent birth is in reality more than a century old. Such expressions as, "management by objectives," "participatory decision making," "morale building," may be found implicitly or explicitly, in the works and words of management pioneers written more than a century ago. Their insight into what is now a major academic discipline is revealing.

Robert Owen (1771-1858) had established for himself a reputation as a very successful textile manager in Scotland. Writing in 1823 he advocated that the workers' motivation was a significant contributor to their performance. He also pointed out that conditions both on and off the job contributed to this motivation. He seemed to be aware that a man's motives and values were affected by his total environment. By today's standards, Owen might be labeled "paternalistic"

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[3]Ralph W. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 4.

yet he did much to help improve the living conditions of his workers.

To prove his basic philosophy, he compared workers to machines. "If then due care as to the state of your machines can produce such beneficial results, what may not be expected if you devote equal attention to your vital machines, workers which are far more wonderfully constructed."[4] He expressed his belief and enthusiasm for this philosophy even more strongly in the same article.

> I venture to assure you that time and money so applied if directed by a true knowledge of the subject, would return you not five, ten, or fifteen percent, for your capital so expended, but often fifty and in many cases, one hundred percent.[5]

Only seven years later, the British Mechanical scientist, Charles Babbage (1792-1871) would write of two modern concepts: first, that management is a science, and secondly, the concept of the division of labor, that would be perfected later by Frederick Taylor.

Writing in 1832, Babbage implied that management was indeed a science, since "there are principles that seemed to pervade many establishments, definite principles exist, they can be determined by experience, that they can be applied broadly."[6]

The second concept developed by Babbage dealt with the division of labor. He believed that a given task should be broken into as many subtasks as possible. This would require a shorter learning period, develop a greater skill, save lost time in changing

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[4]Robert Owen, A New View of Society (New York: E. Bliss & E. White, 1825), p. 58.

[5]Ibid., p. 59.

[6]Charles Babbage, On the Economy of Machinery and Manufacturers, (Philadelphia: Carey & Lee, 1832), p. 120.

from one activity to another, and enable each worker to use only the specific tools required for the task.[7]

Captain Henry Metcalfe (1847-1917) attempted to prove that there is a science of management. His rationale was quite simple. There are certain principles that can be found by recording observations and experiences and comparing them. These principles, which can be applied in a variety of cases constitute the science of administration. Metcalfe presumed that management is an art. A science is then developed by studying this art and in turn the science becomes "the handmaid of the art."[8]

The year following Metcalfe's work, Henry Robinson Towne (1844-1924) made several pertinent observations about developing this science. He wanted managers to meet and exchange ideas about their managerial work, compare objectives, techniques, and observations, "thus developing data on which a science of management could be based."[9] Towne believed that the expert manager would have to be very knowledgeable in two areas, his area of work, and, "having also and equally, a practical knowledge of how to observe, record, analyze and compare essential facts in relation to wages, etc."[10] He believed that much knowledge of this science already existed, and encouraged the formation of organizations that would "serve as a medium for the interchange of this experience among those whom it interests and concerns."[11]

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[7] Ibid., p. 121.

[8] Captain Henry Metcalfe, The Cost of Manufacturers and the Administration of Workshops, Public and Private (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1885), p. 17.

[9] Henry Robinson Towne, Transaction of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers (Chicago: 1886), Vol. 7, p. 428.

[10] Ibid., p. 428.

[11] Ibid., p. 430.

Era of Scientific Management. While the authors mentioned above indicated considerable insight into the science of management, they did not have any profound impact upon general management practices. The titled "Father of Scientific Management" is Frederick Winslow Taylor (1856-1915). His philosophy would be the first to have national appeal and attempts at application. Taylor believed that there are two classes of employees, the managers and the workers. The managers know what is best for the workers. It is the managers' function to analyze the various tasks, break them into their parts, and show each worker how to be a perfectionist in his specific task. He believed that by doing this, management would "obtain their hard work, their good will, their ingenuity, their determination to treat their employer's business as if it were their own."[12]

> Under the new system every single workingman is raised up, is developed, is taught, so that he can do a higher, better and a more interesting class of work than he could do before.[13]

Managers, then, were to determine what was best for the workers. The present concept of participatory decision making was out, and the admission of several routes to a specific objective was taboo. "If you allow each man to do his own way, just exactly as he pleases, without any regard to science, science melts away. You must have standards."[14] And these could only be determined by managers.

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[12]Frederick Winslow Taylor, Scientific Management (Hanover, N. H.: Dartmouth College Press, 1912), p. 30.

[13]Ibid., p. 53.

[14]Ibid., p. 55.

Taylor became very detailed in the division of a task into subtasks. Once these were established, he then introduced a type of piecework pay system, i.e., high pay for those who succeeded in reaching their quotas, and low pay for those who did not. His success at Bethlehem Steel seemed to prove his theories. "After three and a half years, 140 men were doing the work formerly done by 400 to 600 men."[15]

At about the same time, an associate of Taylor's, Henry Lawrence Gantt (1861-1919) went a step farther. He proposed that perfection of a skill was necessary but not enough to get the most out of the worker. There was also the question of motivation. "The general policy of the past has been to drive, but the era of force must give way to that of knowledge, and the policy of the future will be to teach and to lead, to the advantage of all concerned."[16] Gantt seemed to build on Taylor's idea by adding this concept of interest and motivation, attitudes that were to be encouraged by the managers. "It is a well known fact that work in which we are interested and holds our attention without any effort on our part, tires us much less than that we have to force ourselves to do."[17] In the practical application of his theories, he advocated a basic salary plus bonus for objectives reached and surpassed.

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[15]Bertram M. Gross, "The Scientific Approach to Administration" in Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Daniel E. Griffiths, Editor, The Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 30.

[16]Henry Lawrence Gantt, paper presented to the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, December 1908, Vol. 30, p. 1038.

[17]Ibid., p. 1040.

Another contemporary of Taylor and Gantt, Russell Robb (1846-1927) added another dimension to the science of management. He was one of the first to consider the essentials of the whole organizational structure, its nature, its function, its interdependence. He believed that the kind of organization that should exist must be determined by the kind of results sought.[18]

> We know pretty definitely the factors that make an organization. They are structure, lines of authority, responsibility, division of labor, system, discipline; accounting, records and statistics; and "esprit de corps", cooperation, "team play"; but when we attempt to determine the parts played by these factors, we find that their relative importance changes with purpose, conditions, and material. We begin to realize that there is an art of organizing that requires knowledge of aims, processes, men, and conditions, as well as the principles of organization.[19]

Robb seems to advocate, that what Taylor and Gantt saw as necessary knowledge and skill for the managers, actually must go further and an analysis of the whole organization and its parts and objectives must be studied.

If this art or developing an organization is to be used, then the specific objectives of an enterprise must be established. In today's terminology, this is called "management by objectives". A salesman, Harrington Emerson (1853-1931) pioneered this concept, if not the actual term. If specific objectives were not established and promulgated, he warned, "The vagueness, the uncertainty, the

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[18]Russell Robb, Lectures on Organization (Private Printing, 1910), p. 3.

[19]Ibid., p. 23.

aimlessness that characterizes employees, is but an infiltration of the vagueness, the uncertainty, the aimlessness that characterizes employers."[20] He stated and defined what he labeled the twelve principles of efficiency, and obeying his own philosophy identified the first principle "as a clearly defined ideal."[21]

> If every manager would formulate his own ideals, promulgate them throughout his plant, post them everywhere, innoculate every official and every employee with them, industrial organizations could attain the same high degree of individual and aggregate excellence as a baseball team.[22]

Henri Fayol (1841-1925) translated the scriptural admonition "no man can serve two masters" to the world of management. He insisted that effective management required unity of command and unity of direction.[23] Within this context he wrote with some insight into the concept of leadership. "Principles are flexible and capable of adaptation to every need: it is a matter of knowing how to make use of them, which is a difficult art requiring intelligence, experience, decision and proportion."[24] This implies that a leader is more than a manager, for "a good leader possesses and infuses into those around him courage to accept responsibility."[25]

Fayol also points out that good leadership requires more

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[20]Harrington Emerson, The Twelve Principles of Efficiency (New York: The Engineering Magazine Co., 1912), p. 90.

[21]Ibid., p. 59. [22]Ibid., p. 87.

[23]Henri Fayol, General and Industrial Management, translated from the French by Constance Storrs (Paris: Dunod, 1916), p. 24.

[24]Ibid., p. 19. [25]Ibid., p. 22.

than the authority explicit in a particular title. Effective leadership will also be based upon authority present in the leader from other sources.

> Authority is the right to give orders and the power to exact obedience. Distinction must be made between a manager's official authority deriving from office and personal authority, compounded of intelligence, experience, moral worth, ability to lead, past services, etc.[26]

Frank Bunker Gilbreth (1868-1924) is another member of the Scientific Management school. He believed that there is "one best way" to perform a task, and it is management's responsibility to find and implement this way.[27]

> The science of Management is an indispensable aid in understanding and using efficiency methods and devices, because it tells what is efficient, decides exactly how efficient it is, and explains the why. The science of management consists of applying measurement to management, and of abiding by the results of measurement.[28]

This seems to suggest that he too is an advocate of "management by objectives." As stated above, Fayol offered some insight into the concept of leadership. The same may be said of Mary Parker Follet (1868-1933). Her distinction between an administrator and a leader was based on her belief that leaders "do not merely draw logical conclusions from the array of facts of the past. . .they have a

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[26] Ibid., p. 21.

[27] Frank B. Gilbreth, Science in Management for the One Best Way to do Work (Milan: Societa Umanitaria, 1923), p. 12.

[28] Ibid., p. 2.

vision of the future."[29] She listed three requirements for leadership: knowledge of the job: ability to grasp a total situation; and the ability to organize the experience of the group to get the full power of the group.[30] This seems to be the advent of the concept "participatory decision making."

Follet, like Fayol, identifies different kinds of leadership:

> The leadership of position, the leadership of personality, and the leadership of function. My claim for modern industry is that in the best managed plants the leadership of function is tending to have more weight and the leadership of mere position and mere personality less.[31]

About this time, a very interesting experiment was being initiated at the Hawthorne Works (Chicago) of the Western Electric Company. Under the general direction of the School of Business Administration of Harvard University, these experiments were designed to measure the effect of changing physical conditions and environment on production.

In April 1927, six girls were selected from a large department at the Hawthorne Works. Their work consisted in assembling telephone relays. The director of the test set out to change their working environment (lighting, hours, coffee breaks, etc.) to determine optimum working conditions. Regardless of the change, the rate of production continued to increase. Even when a previous set

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[29]Mary P. Follet, Freedom and Co-ordination (London: Management Publications Trust Ltd., 1949), p. 53.

[30]Ibid., p. 50. [31]Ibid., p. 99.

of circumstances was repeated, the production rate increased. Since the only obvious conclusion seemed to be that there was no necessary relationship between the controlled work environment and the rate of production, there had to be some other cause for the continuing increase that had no apparent relationship to the environmental factors.

George Elton Mayo (1880-1949), a designer of the experiment, concluded that the change was caused by motivation. These employees became in their own mind, at least, very special, members of an elite group. They came to know each other in a very personal way. Many important people were interested in their work. They were members of a very special team.

> Here then are two topics which deserve the closest attention of all those engaged in administrative work--the organization of working teams and the free participation of such teams in the task and purpose of the organization as it directly affects them in their daily round.[32]

The era of Scientific Management had gone full cycle. Beginning with the assumption that management was a science, and that it consisted essentially in the study and application of specialization of the task, the emphasis was now upon the man. The Hawthorne experiments raised the question of motivation. What was it? How did it affect the worker? This new emphasis in management studies is called the period of the Human Relations Approach to Management.

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[32]George E. Mayo, The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization (Boston: Harvard University Press, 1945), p. 73.

Human relations era. A famous pioneer of this concept, the human relations approach to management, was Chester I. Barnard. After many years of administrative experience, he wrote his classic, The Functions of the Executive. This book, written more than thirty years ago, displayed rare insight into the nature of man, the nature of organizations, and the role of effective executives.

His rationale to establish that administration is a science, and common to many areas of life was quite simple.

> Many times I have noted that executives are able to understand each other with very few words when discussing essential problems of organization, provided that the questions are stated without dependence upon the technologies of the respective fields.[33]

Barnard considers an organization a cooperative system, and he is quick to point out that there are physical, biological, psychological, and social factors at work in any cooperative system. Hence his basic idea that a great knowledge of the nature of man is necessary for executives.[34]

According to Barnard, "the essential functions of the executive are, first to provide the system of communication; second, to promote the securing of essential efforts and third, to formulate and define purpose."[35] Abstracting from this, he would go further

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[33]Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1st printing, 1938, 12th printing, 1956), p. vii.

[34]Ibid., p. 32f.

[35]Ibid., p. 217.

and state:

> The general executive process is not intellectual in its important aspect; it is aesthetic and moral. Thus its exercise involves the sense of fitness, of the appropriate, and the capacity which is known as responsibility--the final expression for the achievement of cooperation.[36]

Peter F. Druker attempted to close the gap between management theorist and reality.[37] He attempted to offer some criteria for the evaluation of managers.

> This book assumes that the manager can improve his performance in all areas of management, including the management of a business, through the systematic study of the principles, the acquisition of organized knowledge, and the systematic analysis of his own performance in all areas of his job and work and on all levels of management. Yet the ultimate test of management is business performance.[38]

With Barnard, he is also a strong advocate of integrity for managers.[39] Druker's perception of leadership as a dimension of management is worthy of note. He considers it essential to effective management, yet he insists that it "cannot be created or promoted. It cannot be taught or learned."[40]

> For leadership is not magnetic personality--that can be demagoguery. It is not "making friends and influencing people"--that is salesmanship. Leadership is the lifting of a man's vision to higher sights, the raising of a man's performance to a higher standard, the building of a man's personality beyond its normal limitations.[41]

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[36] Ibid., p. 237.

[37] Peter F. Druker, The Practice of Management (New York: Harper & Row, 1954), p. vii.

[38] Ibid., p. 9.

[39] Ibid., p. 157.

[40] Ibid., p. 158.

[41] Ibid., p. 159.

Druker sees the work of the manager as embodying six tasks: setting objectives, organization, motivate and communicate, evaluation, and development of people.[42] And to this end he lists two principles of management development: first, the development of the entire management group; secondly, it must be dynamic and focus on the future.[43] The second is almost obvious, but his first principle needs a word of explanation. If a given industry is to manifest a consistent philosophy of management, all managers must be exposed to the same training program where after examination of various styles of management a concensus will develop. If only a select few are exposed to these experiences, much of their efforts might be contradicted by other managers, especially their superiors, who are not aware of, or are not concerned about, these new patterns.

Barnard and Druker, and their contemporaries, seem to agree that one function of management is the motivation of subordinates. There are several theories of motivation that might be used for the purposes of this work. The one chosen is that defined by A. E. Maslow.

Maslow based his theory of motivation on the assumption that man's motivated acts are in response to need satisfaction. He then states that there is a five-step hierarchy of needs, and that the needs at one level do not motivate until the needs at the previous

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[42] Ibid., p. 343.

[43] Ibid., p. 185.

level are satisfied. These levels are: 1) physiological needs, 2) safety needs, 3) belonging and love needs, 4) esteem needs, 5) self-actualization needs. He does point out that a specific motivated human act might be directed to the satisfaction of more than one level of needs.[44] In fact, Maslow does suggest that "most behavior is multi-motivated."[45]

Self-actualization is necessary for maximum performance. This results when the individual employee possesses a sense of belonging. One method of encouraging and developing this quality is by establishing procedures that encourage participation and involvement. This means that workers should be involved in the making of decisions that affect them.

This concept, that people, other than the immediate administrator, must be involved in the decision making process was graphically demonstrated in the diagram designed by Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt. (See Appendix D.) Because of the general acceptance of the principles of democracy, most administrative novices would conclude that the pattern at the extreme right of the diagram is the best and,when used, will guarantee success as an administrator. Yet, the authors themselves caution with the following observation.

> The successful manager of men can be characterized neither as a strong leader nor a permissive one. Rather, he is one who maintains a high batting average in accurately assessing the forces that determine what his most appropriate behavior at any given time should be and in actually being able to

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[44] A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper & Bros., 1954), p. 80ff.

[45] Ibid., p. 102.

behave accordingly. Being both insightful and flexible, he is less likely to see the problems of leadership as a dilemma.[46]

Tannenbaum's graph suggests the extreme of worker participation in the decisions that affect him, when compared with the decision making process of Frederick Taylor. Douglas McGregor develops and describes two extreme theories of management that analyze these positions: theory X, similar to Taylor, and theory Y, that would include the ultimate in participatory decision making. Since McGregor believed that "every managerial act rests on assumptions, generalizations, and hypothesis--that is to say theory,"[47] he then developed the two extreme theories of administration and analyzed their respective consequences. The major assumptions upon which theory X is based are: Man dislikes work and will avoid it if he can. He must be forced to work. He prefers to be directed and avoid responsibility.[48]

McGregor then shows how these attitudes are indeed possible when man lacks any sense of motivation. His analysis of motivation is based on Maslow's work mentioned above. Once the motivation dimension is utilized, then management begins to function towards the principles and values of theory Y.

The major assumptions of theory Y are: work is natural to man, who will exercise self-control and self-direction when he is committed to the objectives of his task. Under proper conditions, man seeks and accepts responsibility.[49]

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[46]Robert Tannenbaum & Warren Smith, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern", Harvard Business Review, March-April, 1958, Vol. 36, No. 2, p. 101.

[47]Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960), p. 6.

[48]Ibid., pp. 33ff. [49]Ibid., pp. 45ff.

According to McGregor and Maslow, man performs best when he is self-actualizing, when his personal objectives have some relevancy to the objectives of his employer. But can this equation ever be reached? Chris Argyris attempted to answer this question.

An oversimplification of his solution to this question of integrating the individual and the company is alluded to when he states, "the problem of integrating the individual and the organization is one in which both have to 'give a little' to profit from each other."[50] In this quest for equation of objectives, this compromise is necessary, for at first glance the organizational objectives and the individual objectives seem almost contradictory. Argyris lists three requirements for individual psychological success: 1) the individual must value himself and want to increase his competence, 2) the organization must allow him to define his goals and the means to them, and 3) society's influence must encourage this. Argyris develops the first two in some detail.[51]

His suggested solution to this basic problem is found in his propositions for a significant change in the traditional decision making processes. It is with this new formula that participation, self-actualization, and committment will be born and develop.

> Self-esteem is intimately related with responsibility to something or someone outside oneself.[52]

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[50]Chris Argyris, The Individual and the Organization (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1964), p. 3.

[51]Ibid., p. 33.

[52]Ibid., p. 147.

> Research indicates that the management that develops an employee decision-making structure so that the employee can participate in important production decisions, tends to have a more efficient and more effective organization.[53]

This delicate balance between the individual and the organization, needed for the good of both, begins when this concept of decision making becomes the normal operating pattern.

> In our terms, a worker begins to participate in the problem-solving process and his time perspective and his awareness of the organization as a whole are enlarged while at the same time the organization becomes increasingly influenced through the interdependency of the parts rather than by the direction of a given part.
>
> All of these conditions are consonant with our conception of a healthy organization.[54]

This new atmosphere can only be developed if new styles of leadership are developed. If the boss is present, and he controls the power (wages, promotions, status, etc.), much of the desired good will not be achieved. Argyris then develops four stages in the evolution of this new system,[55] to reach this organization of the future that will have leaders who "have developed reality centered leadership patterns. When a leader is reality centered, he is able to diagnose a given administrative situation from the point of view of all those involved (including himself.)"[56]

From what has been stated above, it is evident that there are two basic concerns of administrators, concern for production and concern for people. It is easy to visualize that any given administrator might develop a personal style of management that

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[53] Ibid., p. 171.

[54] Ibid., p. 207.

[55] Ibid., p. 214ff.

[56] Ibid., p. 215.

might be labeled by an almost infinite combination of either.

Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton have designed a managerial grid. (See Appendix H.) On one axis they classify different degrees of concern for production, on the other degrees of concern for people. Their text is an analysis of five specific management styles identified by position on this grid.

Their ideal manager is located at 9.9 on this grid, great concern for production and great concern for people. The authors offer some interesting observations about the atmosphere created by this style of management, and its effect on the people involved.

> A general theme. . .is that of creating conditions of work where people understand the problem, have stakes in the outcome and where their ideas make a real contribution to the results obtained. This concept of participation is based on the notion that when people can think, when they have influence on outcome, they support rather than comply or resist.[27]

> Openness is a two-way exchange of information, openness stimulates openness, trust, trust; closedness stimulates closedness; hostility, counter hostility.[28]

Re-phrasing what other writers have stated, Blake and Mouton offer the following as a description of the ideal manager.

> His basic motivation is caught by the word contribution; a fulfillment of self through expression in work activities and in relationships with others which are characterized by respect and trust. . .success comes from accomplishing the purpose of the organization with others, whether it be in industrial, family, educational, or religious settings.[29]

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[27]Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid (Houston, Texas: Gulf Publications Co., 1964), p. 134.

[28]Ibid., p. 150. [29]Ibid., p. 177.

During the past century, the emphasis in administration has moved from the task to the man. Current literature indicates that effective administration exists when the worker is respected as a sacred individual human being. His needs, his wants, his feelings, his ambitions are all the concern of administrators. If this is the state of the art of management, its immediate reference deals with industry. But education is not industry. The product and profit motive are not so paramount in education and, therefore, it is necessary to view the science of administration as reflected in the writings of educational administrators.

2. Educational Administration. It is the function of researchers and scholars in educational administration to bridge the gap between administrative theory in general and the needs of educational administration in particular. Their's is the task of identifying the theories of management that have real application in educational settings. In the pages that follow, examples of this transfer will be illustrated.

Daniel E. Griffiths has stated that the central function of administration is decision-making. He identifies six essential steps for effective decision making. They are: 1) recognize, define and limit the problem; 2) analyze and evaluate the problem; 3) establish criteria for the solution; 4) collect data, 5) select the preferred solution and, 6) put the preferred solution into effect.[60]

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[60]Daniel E. Griffiths, Administrative Theory (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959), p. 94.

While these guide lines have general application, he does make specific reference to decision making and educational administration when he states:

> The man we want to look at is a leader. . . .For whatever else it is, leadership is a relation. It is a relation in so far as it involves interactions between two or more persons, one of whom makes decisions, the other of whom must abide by or follow these decisions.[61]

> No matter what kind of a leader the principal is, no matter how he arrives at his decisions, there will be those who accept him and those who reject him. His acceptance or rejection will depend for the most part on how closely he meets the personal needs of those who work under him. . . .In any concrete leader situation, the follower's deep-lying attitudes and needs are background determiners of his reactions to the leader. Just as each principal brings to the job a certain "readiness"for a particular kind of leadership, so does each teacher bring a certain "readiness" to accept or reject certain leadership styles.[62]

Griffiths has related the general concept of decision-making and leadership style to the particular needs of the school principal.

Another concept, as related by Griffiths, deals with the problem of morale.

> If we observe a faculty carefully, we can find some indication of its morale; we can observe the amount of work its members do. In cases of high morale production is high; in cases of low morale production is low.[63]

Several other authors in school administration have also written about this question of morale with reference to its specific application in the school situation.

Jesse Lipham identifies the sources of some morale problems

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[61]Daniel E. Griffiths, "Administration as Decision Making" in School Administration - Selected Readings, Sherman H. Frey and Keith R. Getschman, Editors (Thomas Y. Crowell Co., N.Y., 1963), p. 263.

[62]Ibid., p. 268.

[63]Daniel E. Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts Inc., 1956), p. 147.

and then indicates the need of the school principal in correcting them.

> Three sources of conflict, about which substantial research has been conducted are: 1) conflict between two or more roles which the principal is fulfilling simultaneously, 2) conflict in expectations between two or more reference groups, and 3) conflict in expectations within a major reference group.[64]

> Research findings concerning interpersonal conflict would seem to suggest that the effective leader must increasingly become a better student of people--their wants, their needs, values, motivations and aspirations.[65]

Archie McPherran also relates general concepts on the value of morale to the school setting. "Educational excellence generally is found in school districts where morale is high. With high morale come achievement and happiness; with low morale, failure and discontent."[66] He outlines ten keys to high morale. Keys six and eight are worthy of special note.

> Key 6. Participation - The district involves personnel in shared decision making. The decisions of a democratic administrator should reflect the thinking of the staff on policies concerned with personnel, promotion, discipline, grading and testing. Participation should be allowed in decision making, curriculum development, and building planning.[67]

> Key 8. Realization - The district helps employees to realize personal fulfillment.[68]

These concepts of participatory decision making and self-actualization were well established concepts in general administrative theory.

Modern use of the term manager (or administrator) seems to include the concept of leadership. Many current authors in educational administration make this same inclusion. In other words, the role of

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[64]James M. Lipham, "Dynamics of the Principalship" in School Administration - Selected Readings, p. 273.

[65]Ibid., p. 282.

[66]Archie L. McPherran, "Ten Keys to Morale" in School Administration - Selected Readings, p. 331.

[67]Ibid., p. 332. [68]Ibid., p. 333.

an educational administrator now includes the dimension of leadership.

Alex Bavelas has stated that

> That person who can assist or facilitate the group most in reaching a satisfactory state is most likely to be regarded as the leader.[69]

> Organizational leadership consists of uncertainty reduction.[70]

Don Hamacher writing with specific reference to the school principal echoed this concept.

> The "Human Relations Theory" suggests that the leader is the person whom the group perceives as having the qualities and the power to help it achieve its goals.[71]

Jack Culbertson, Executive Director of the University Council for Educational Administration (U.C.E.A.) is considered an authority in Educational Administrative Theory and Educational Administrative Training programs. He has identified seven administrative processes that constitute the activities of effective administrators.

> If educational administrators are to lead, they must understand organizational behavior and be effective in administrative processes required to help communities establish educational purposes and to resolve problems standing in the way of attaining these purposes.[72]

The seven administrative processes Culbertson identifies are: 1) Communication, 2) Decision making, 3) Motivating Personnel and Building Morale, 4) Innovation and Change, 5) Planning and Programming, 6) Assessing Organizational Performance, 7) Research and Development.

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[69] Alex Bavelas, "Leadership: Man and Function" in School Administration - Selected Readings, p. 258.

[70] Ibid., p. 259.

[71] Don E. Hamacher, "Leadership Styles, Decision Making, and the Principal" in School Administration - Selected Readings, p. 262.

[72] Jack Culbertson, Changing the Content of Preparatory Programs for Educational Leaders (Private Printing, April 1970), p. 12.

In addition to these skills, educators must be responsive to the society within which they work.

> It is important that formal preparation programs provide prospective educational administrators opportunities to gain skills and understandings which will enable them to examine societal needs and to continue to think about how education can be more effectively related to these needs.[73]

Culbertson then lists several examples of societal needs that must be considered by educational administrators. They are: 1) Education and race, 2) Curriculum Reform, 3) Financing education, 4) School System Responsiveness, 5) Student Unrest, 6) Teacher Militancy, 7) Central Office - Attendance Unit Relationships.[74]

The concept of Human Relations that seemed so vital for administrators in general is now seen as a most vital and paramount factor in considering educational administration. Educational leaders must be more human, more sensitive, more responsive than other managers.

Benjamin Sachs identifies this quality as empathy and defines it as "more than an intellectual commitment although intelligence may be part of it. It is based on a concept of self-worth and respect for others. It is deep commitment of the authority figure to the recipient."[75]

All that has been stated above can be identified as sound administrative theory in general and valid educational leadership theory in particular.

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[73] Ibid., p. 10ff.

[74] Ibid., p. 11ff.

[75] Benjamin M. Sachs, Educational Administration A Behavioral Approach (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1966), p. 153.

The next problem that must be solved concerns the transfer of this knowledge from the realm of theory to the behavior patterns of present and future administrators. What follows is an analysis of administrative training programs.

3. Preparatory Programs. In order to learn from the experience of others who are concerned with programs in educational administration an attempt was made to review the program content of in-service programs, in other metropolitain areas, and of program content at the various universities. It was hoped that these would offer relevant suggestions for the curriculum designed herein.

In 1966, The Educational Research Association conducted a study to "identify those (school districts) which operate a formal internship program for potential administrators among their own employees."[76] In 1968 (Circular No. 6) this Association published a sampling of the results of this survey. Identifying twenty-nine typical school districts, the authors examined the training program in each district.

Of the twenty-nine districts mentioned, fourteen offered an administrative training program organized totally within the school system. The other fifteen programs were organized in conjunction with a University. In either case, the program was designed as a training period for some specific administrative position. The assignments of the candidates usually consisted in learning what the specific duties of that post were and what the local routines were. The candidates

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[76]Educational Research Service, Circular No. 6, Developing Administrative Leadership, published by The American Association of School Administrators, and National Education Association, 1968, p.1.

were then given oppprtunities to perform some of the administrative duties of the position under study. There seemed to be little program content directed to a scientific study of administration.

Since the data in this publication was a few years old, a questionnaire was sent to many of the districts mentioned, and also to a few others, so that the original data might be updated. (See Appendix E.)

The questionnaire was sent to nineteen of the original twenty-nine school districts listed in the ERA survey. Twelve districts answered. The questionnaire was also sent to sixteen other school districts, and thirteen of these replied. Of the twenty-five districts that replied, only fourteen indicated that they had an in-service program for future principals. Five of the latter did not include any literature about their program, and four other districts stated that their program was administered in conjunction with a university.

Only two school districts, Toronto and New York, included any literature about their administrative training program for future principals. In both cases, the emphasis of their respective programs dealt with school curriculum, school law, and administrative procedures. Neither system offered their future principals an organized administrative training program.

The questionnaire to these school districts produced little data of value for this work. First, many of the places offering an in-service program created an internship post specifically for purposes of preparation of a candidate for that post. In Montreal, while all principals are appointed from the ranks of the assistant principals, the post of assistant principal is not defined primarily as a training

period for a future principal. Secondly, none of the school districts indicated its use of any organized administrative training program, with specific objectives and experiences. Consequently, these districts were of little help in designing this curriculum for an in-service training program.

There are two major organizations conducting continuous research in educational administration. They are The University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) at Ohio State University, and The Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration (CASEA) at the University of Oregon. Both organizations serve as resource centers for many other universities and colleges that offer programs in educational administration.

Jack Culbertson offers some insight into the thinking that is influencing program content at the Universities that are members of UCEA.

> Of the various issues that can be raised about the content of preparatory programs, perhaps the most critical of all is that of relevance. The issue is critical because of a growing gap between program content offered in university programs and the changing social, educational and leadership needs of society.
>
> At the heart of preparatory programs are the learning experiences of individual students. Since program content strongly shapes these experiences, it is one of the most significant variables to be dealt with in designing program improvement efforts.[77]

Culbertson establishes the concept of relevancy to the changing social and educational needs as a major factor influencing curriculum development in this area. In a previous section of this

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[77]Jack Culbertson, Changing the Content of Preparatory Programs for Educational Leadership (Ohio: Private Printing, April 1970), p. 1.

chapter these needs as identified by Culbertson were specified.

John Nagle, reporting on a UCEA study of existing educational administration university programs suggests that most were very traditional and did not meet today's needs. His observations on this point indicate some of the philosophy influencing CASEA members as they attempt to update their respective programs. He states:

> Several trends for the future of preparatory programs appear in the literature. One is the effort to increase the relevancy of preparation programs to the critical and larger social, professional and educational issues of the present and future exemplified in the more future-oriented programs by the development of new courses and the broadening of potential field experiences. A second trend, one uncovered by the UCEA study, is the tendency toward greater flexibility and individualization in preparatory programs. . . .The third major trend now visible. . .is the continuing shift of emphasis from the technical to the conceptual, evidenced by more emphasis on the behavioral sciences and more courses having an interdisciplinary approach.[78]

Nagle also identifies relevancy to social and educational needs as a major factor influencing preparatory programs in educational administration. Another factor, he identifies, is the shift in emphasis from the technical to the conceptual basis as a data source for such programs.

While these observations appear rational and forward looking, one must wonder to what extent they have any impact on the actual training of future administrators. The Teachers College at Columbia University has attempted a response to this new thrust.

In 1968, Columbia University introduced a revised educational administration program, "based on an assumption that the role of the school administrator is dynamic and changing rapidly."[79] Arthur Lewis

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[78]John M. Nagle, "Preparing Leaders for Education", Trend Magazine, Fall, 1967, p. 25.

[79]Arthur J. Lewis, "New Formula for Teachers College Program", Trend Magazine, Fall, 1968, p. 29.

elaborates on the plan at Columbia University when he states:

> The formation of educational policy consonant with long range social goals--and the most effective use of educational practices to implement these policies--must now be the administrator's primary function. To prepare such educational leaders, an intensive three-year course is being built around five principal components: 1) Social and behavioral science studies and humanities, 2) Professional and administrative studies, 3) Rotating internship experiences, 4) Special seminars, 5) A research project.[80]

At this writing, it is too early to test the validity of this program. However, the basic concepts underlying it are worthy of note. Lewis indicates that this program considers long range social goals as a relevant basis for administrative curriculum development.

Even if these university programs do have the answer to the basic questions concerning effective administration and preparatory programs for effective administration, few of the assistant principals in Montreal will even be able to follow such programs. Consequently, these objectives and experiences must be revised and incorporated into in-service programs designed on a continuing basis over several years.

The American Association of School Administrators (AASA) has established (1969) a semi-autonomous organization called The AASA National Academy for School Executives. Their program is based on the assumption that "the past decade has witnessed increased emphasis upon in-service education. Societal change and the rapidly increasing fund of knowledge have forced the admission that the initial preparation is inadequate, however extensive, without subsequent in-service education experiences."[81]

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[80] Ibid., p. 29-30.

[81] Harold E. Kinser, "The AASA National Academy for School Executives" Trend Magazine, Fall 1969, p. 36.

In an effort to offer the program followers a relevant curriculum, some of the topics under discussion are. "Student Activism, Teacher Evaluation, Decision Making, Program Budgeting, and Negotiation."[82] The program is designed to follow one of three basic formats. The first, one-week seminars and clinics; second, residential programs of six weeks to three or four months duration; third a "think tank" for educational administrators. At the time of this writing, only phase one is operational. It is hoped that phases two and three will be operational by mid-1970.[83]

The program is essentially a travelling in-service program, making use of hotels and resort centers for the workshops.

> In the sessions that follow NASE professors develop a conceptual base from which analyses of the problem may proceed. An attempt is made to provide a perspective from which strategies for coping with the problem under discussion can be developed and a rationale for exploring their probable effectiveness can be devised. Laboratory sessions incorporating simulation, role-playing, strategy planning, and the development of more effective skills, techniques, or instruments provide opportunities for the immediate application of new understandings. An attempt is made to assist the participants in the development of both immediate short-term strategies and long-term planning.[84]

While the objectives and methodology outlined above seem relevant at this time, it is interesting to note that both concepts are openended and subject to constant review and evaluation by the leaders and participants. While many ideas of value are contained in the NASE program, it should be noted that it is designed essentially for superintendents, and our concern herein is the school principal.

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[82] Ibid., p. 37.

[83] Ibid., p. 37.

[84] Ibid., p. 38.

One important factor, supplied from a review of the literature, that cannot be ignored in an analysis of the role of the principal. Role perception is a factor that will determine the type of individual seeking this post and affect his behavior as a principal.

4. Concepts of the Principalship. As this field study evolved, the author often wondered, "Is the school principal really that important in the educational hierarchy?" A brief review of some writings dealing with the principalship gave emphatic answer to this question.

Luther Bradfield was most emphatic. "The most dramatic description of an elementary principal is that he is an educational leader. He is cognizant of the educational goals of his school and interprets them to his community, his staff, and his pupils."[85] The principal, then, should be considered as a major educational leader. This assessment was echoed by others.

Writing in the January 1969 issue of The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, J. Lloyd Trump, Associate Secretary of that organization, stated: "There is nothing new in the concept that the principal more than any other person determines the character of the school."[86] Ellsworth Tompkins also establishes the primacy of the principalship.

> It has often been said that as the principal goes, so goes the school. If he sees his main job as a manager of things, or one who "lays down the law," the school will recognize that details and rulings are of high importance. If he regards his

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[85] Luther Bradfield and DLeonard Kraft, editors, The Elementary School Principal in Action (Scranton, Penn., International Textbook Company, 1970), p. 1.

[86] J. Lloyd Trump, The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (hereafter referred to as The Bulletin of N.A.S.S.P.) No. 333, January 1969, p. xi.

> role as that of instructional leader of the school, teachers and students will consider instruction important. And if he encourages members of the staff to initiate and try out more imaginative ways by which teaching and learning can be more effective, the school takes on a character of innovation.[87]

The concept of the principalship that is evolving is one of leadership--not primarily a leader of men but essentially an educational leader. Jan Jacobs makes further reference to this essential role. "The most significant factor in encouraging curriculum change is the behavior that the principal employs in his relationship with other staff members."[88]

This suggests that the principal is primarily an educational leader, a knowledgeable educator, who uses administrative techniques to establish and facilitate this leadership. The primacy of the educator must remain paramount in any analysis of the principalship. Lloyd Trump enlarges on this concept with reference to curriculum change.

> The responsibility for seeing that something much more than name-changing takes place lies with the principal. He is the one who must work regularly with teachers, raising the right questions and guiding their efforts toward the improvement of instruction. A principal therefore needs to organize the school he administers in a way that permits him to place the highest priority where he knows it belongs--on improving teaching and learning. . . .Activities to this end need to occupy three quarters of his working time, whether his school is large or small.[89]

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[87]Ellsworth Tompkins, The Bulletin of the N.A.S.S.P., No. 303, October 1965, p.2.

[88]Jan Wayne Jacobs, The Bulletin of the N.A.S.S.P., No. 303, October, 1965, p. 13.

[89]Trump, op. cit., p. 3.

> He has designed in effect a continuous in-service curriculum for teachers in how to improve their own methods and the learning of the pupils.[90]

> The modern principal is expected to select, guide, and evaluate educative procedures. His program of training must prepare him for these far-ranging and far from traditional tasks.[91]

Given the responsibilities outlined above, Lloyd Trump does well to raise the question of preparation. He identifies two areas of preparation, "competent academic preparation and provisions for the practice of administration."[92] The same assumption is made here as earlier in this study, that normal promotion procedures tend to satisfy the requirement of the academic preparation. The focus herein centers on the administrative preparation.

Ralph Jordan offers some insight into the curriculum content of preparatory programs for administrators. His analysis is most relevant for students of educational administration.

> Every administrator bears responsibility for achieving optimum results through the productive efforts of people. This paper is concerned with how these optimum results can be accomplished through love. "Love" means, here sympathetic understanding, empathetic feeling, strong-liking, fondness, good will, friendliness, brotherhood, compassion. . . .Although love and concern for people are not usually mentioned in a definition of administration, it is generally recognized among present-day managerial personnel that administration is basically a way of working with people to fulfill the aims of the enterprise. It includes leadership, which is the encouragement and execution of change, and it includes the maintenance of established structures, procedures and goals.[93]

If these are the concepts that must influence the actions of principals, it is interesting to ponder how these skills and values might be acquired. J. Lloyd Trump suggests that "he learns his manage-

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[90] Ibid., p. 4. [91] Ibid., p. 11. [92] Ibid., p. 13.

[93] Ralph E. Jordan, "Love in Administration", from Bradford & Kraft, op. cit., p. 3.

ment duties through simulation and automated instruction techniques. He participates frequently in both planned and informal small group activities."[94]

In order that newly appointed principals are reasonably well prepared for their new duties, Montreal promotion procedures should require that much of this preparation take place during the period of assistant principalship. This would help reach the objective stated above, and it would make the period of assistant principalship less ambiguous. It is interesting to note that the role of assistant (or vice) principal is almost generally vague and ill defined.

> While there is a degree of agreement about the responsibilities of the principal, the assistant principalship in our secondary schools has evolved without an adequate sense of direction or underlying philosophy. The assistant principal's duties and responsibilities have developed, not from adequate planning, but from various duties too often delegated on the basis of experience rather than sound principles of organization and personnel administration.[95]

When the salary and the qualifications of most assistant principals are contemplated, it is hard to fathom this unfortunate neglect. Much better use must be made of this period in an educator's career. Philip Wells refers to these objectives when he states that:

> There are two general purposes which the assistant principal's position should serve. First it should promote a more effective administration of the educational offerings of the school. Second, it should provide an in-service training opportunity for the position of the principal.[96]

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[94] Trump, op. cit., p. 6.

[95] E. Dale Davis and John Moore, "The Assistant Principal in the Junior High School" from The Bulletin of the N.A.S.S.P., Vol. 49, No. 297, January 1965, p. 1.

[96] Philip C. Wells, "The Assistant Secondary School Principal" from The Bulletin of the N.A.S.S.P., Vol. 49, No. 297, January 1965, p.16.

Two general objectives for the period of assistant principalship, then, are: first, a useful administrative role in itself, and second, a preparatory training period for the principalship.

5. Summary. The review of the literature presented in the preceding pages helps establish some of the parameters upon which the in-service program will be built.

One of these parameters must certainly be the role of the principal. It is suggested above, that he is the most important individual in establishing the educational and work climate of the school. He will be capable of doing this only when his personal stature as an educator is such that he can identify valid and acceptable educational objectives, and his competence as an administrator is such that he can lead and work with others in the attainment of these goals.

To attain this dual objective, he must come to this assignment well prepared to fulfill its demands. This suggests the need for some organized training. The survey to metropolitain school boards referred to in the preceding pages indicates that many school boards do not consider this responsibility to be a school board function. Perhaps in those areas where some form of administrative certification does exist, school boards can excuse themselves from this responsibility. However, in Montreal no such certification exists. School boards, especially one as large as the Montreal Catholic School Commission, cannot excuse themselves from such a responsibility. The Montreal Catholic School Commission seems to admit this responsibility, and appears disposed to organizing some form of in-service training program. Much

of the rationale and many of the required topics for such a program are identified in the preceding pages.

The authors referred to above, especially those writing in the "human relations era" of administrative theory, reveal their respective definition or description of administration in terms of certain behavior patterns and the rationale upon which these behaviours are based. Any valid in-service program, especially a very basic and elementary one,would have to establish objectives that include the study and development of these behavioural skills. The rationale used to justify and validate these skills will be quite similar to that found in the writings quoted above.

Since the in-service program being designed herein is a basic program, offering many administrators their first exposure to administrative concepts and skills, it will have to begin with a program consisting of the basic administrative skills. These are referred to in the preceding pages as communication, decision making, morale building, and administering change. The other administrative skills referred to in current administrative parlance should not be ignored in planning a total in-service program. However, it must be realized that these more advanced concepts can only be implemented once the basic skills are well founded.

A danger, often referred to in the administrative literature and which must be avoided in this program, is the belief that effective administration is the result of skill development. The authors, especially Barnard, strongly suggest that the use of these administrative

skills must be but the externalization of certain values and concepts dealing with the dignity of man and the integrity of the administrator.

The values and concepts which should serve as the rational base or motivator for the valid administrative behaviour are identified as integrity, empathy, self-actualization, and role perception. These are the values and concepts that make the skills of communication, decision making, morale building and administering change more relevant, more humane and more successful. (See Appendix I)

The identification and definition of these skills, values and concepts is not enough to constitute a meaningful in-service program for the assistant principals in Montreal. The curriculum that is designed for them must address itself to the specific needs of this group. These can be established by assessing their present administrative ability, and the particular dimensions of the principalship that result from factors particular to Montreal.

While it could be suggested that these skills could form the basis for any administrative in-service program, yet for true validity, the curriculum must be modified according to the needs of the individuals following the program. The literature as such does help identify and define the skills and values that constitute effective administration. Other data sources must be used to establish the specific intensity required by this group. These other data sources were identified earlier in this work as "The Learner" and "The Cultural Setting."

C. Learner as Data Source

In an effort to determine the characteristics of the present assistant principals, use was made of two standardized tests dealing with leadership ability and also one questionnaire. The information gathered from these serves as the second data source for curriculum development. (The data source has been identified as the learner.)

1. Standardized Tests. To identify the tests that would be used for the purposes stated above, reference was made to Oskar Buros, editor of The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook.[97] This text lists four tests dealing with leadership. Due to very poor reviews in Buros' work, two of these tests were not used. The first to be discounted was The Leadership Q-Sort Test (1953), published by Psychometric Affiliates of Chicago, Ill. This test was designed to produce scores "concerned with assessing the individual's values with respect to the leadership role."[98]

One reviewer, Joel T. Campbell, of the Educational Testing Service (Princeton, N. J.), in addition to commenting upon the cumbersome scoring method, states:

> Before this test is used in business or education, its validity in such situations should be established. It is at

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[97]Oskar K. Buros, editor, The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook, (Highland Park, N. J.: The Gryphon Press, 1965).

[98]Ibid., p. 230.

> least concernable that the aspects of leadership considered most important in an institutional setting such as the Air Force. . . will not be so considered. . .in a small business, in a large business, a college or political organization.[99]

Cecil Gibb, Psychologist at the Australian National University, is even more critical:

> For the research worker in this area of measuring leadership potential there will be food for thought. . . .One could not confidently recommend it for routine application in any setting.[100]

Since the reviews of this test were so consistently negative, it was decided not to use this instrument as a research tool for the purposes stated herein.

The second standardized test that was discounted was The Management Aptitude Inventory (1957) published by Psychological Business Research, Cleveland, Ohio. The reviews of this test found in Buros' work were also very unfavorable. Mr. C. Jurgensen, Assistant Vice President, Minneapolis Gas Company, offered comments typical of other reviewers:

> Sophisticated test users are not likely even to consider seriously use of a test for which so little and so unfavorable data are available so many years after publication.[101]

Consequently, this test also was discounted as a data source. Two two other tests dealing with leadership identification rated a higher validity level, and consequently were used.

a) The Leadership Ability Evaluation by Russel N. Cassel and Edward J. Stancik, published by Western Psychological Services (Los Angeles). This test produces four sub-scores (one for each of the following styles of decision making: laissez-faire, democratic-

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[99] Ibid., p. 282. [100] Ibid., p. 283. [101] Ibid., p.1250.

cooperative, autocratic-submissive, and autocratic-aggressive) which when weighted and totaled produce a Total Score that is indicative of an acceptable leadership style of decision making. While the reviewers do not consider this test an infallible instrument, John D. Black, Psychologist at Stanford University, states, "Whatever their limitations, the subscales do represent meaningful ways of conceptualizing leadership behavior and it seems unfortunate that the authors have not made more use of them."[102] (See Appendix J)

b) The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire by Edwin A. Fleishman and published by Science Research Associates, Inc, (Chicago) is the second standardized test used. This test produces two independent scores titled "structure" and "consideration." This test received some complimentary remarks from the reviewers. Jerome E. Doppelt, from the Psychological Corporation, New York, states: "The questionnaire may be useful as an aid in management training programs which want to concentrate on the encouragement or suppression of the attitudes exemplified by the items."[103] Wayne K. Kirchner, Manager Personnel Research, Minnesota Mining and Manufacturing Company, offers the following analysis:

> The two dimensions of supervisory behavior were identified in the well known Ohio State Leadership Studies. . . .It seems likely, therefore, that this is a reasonably reliable instrument. . . .Its particular value ought to be in terms of use within the structure of a supervisory or managerial training program. . . .Overall this is not a bad instrument. It has been developed through careful research and careful statistical techniques. It appears to be reliable, presents good evidence validity and presents reasonably good norms.[104] (See Appendix K)

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[102] Ibid., p. 779.

[103] Ibid., p. 1371.

[104] Ibid., p. 1191.

> From the work of the Personnel Research Board at the Ohio State University, the dimensions of "initiating structure" and "consideration" have emerged as significant concepts for describing leader behavior.[105]

The first standardized test administered to the Assistant Principals was The Leadership Ability Evaluation.

> The LAE assesses the decision making pattern or social climate created by a person when he functions as a leader in influencing another person or group to move psychologically toward the leader's objectives.[106]

This test produces a Total Score that "represents the characteristic decision pattern of an individual."[107] This test also produces four sub-scores that are specific to each of the traditional four patterns of decision making.

TABLE 1

LEADERSHIP ABILITY EVALUATION, TOTAL SCORES OBTAINED BY MONTREAL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS

Score	Number
4	1
5	1
6	1
7	3
8	2
9	8
10	1
11	5
12	3
13	3
14	2
15	2
Total	41
Mean	9.9
Average Deviation	2.1

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[105] Lipham, "The Dynamics of the Principalship", p. 271.

[106] R. N. Cassel & E. J. Stancik, The Leadership Ability Evaluation Manual (Beverly Hills, Calif.: Western Psychological Services, 1951), p.1.

[107] Ibid., p. 5.

Fifteen (43%) Candidates obtained scores above ten.
Nine (26%) Candidates obtained scores of 9 or 10.

The authors of the test state that "Total Scores of ten or lower are indicative of effective leaders, while Total Scores above ten are indicative of ineffective leaders."[103] From the test scores obtained by this group, the following observations are noted:

- Since 15 out of 35 candidates (43%) rated as ineffective leaders due to ineffective decision making patterns, the curriculum of an in-service program will have to give much attention to this aspect of leadership.

- The importance of this topic is emphasized even more strongly when it is noted that another nine (26%) are within a point or two of the cut-off score.

The four sub-scores produced by this test give further insight and data relevant to the scores mentioned above. The titles of these sub-scores refer to four styles of decision making. They are Democratic-Cooperative, Laissez-Faire, Autocratic-Submissive, and Autocratic-Aggressive.

The first sub-score to be considered is titled "Democratic-Cooperative". "This score characterizes a parliamentary procedure-centered decision process by the subject. It measures the effectiveness with which he interprets the will of persons being influenced."[104]

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[103] Ibid., p. 5.

[104] Ibid., p. 6.

TABLE 2
LEADERSHIP ABILITY EVALUATION, DEMOCRATIC COOPERATIVE SUB-SCORES OBTAINED BY MONTREAL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS

Score	Number
Below 20	0
21-22-23	2
24-25-26	4
27-28-29	2
30-31-32	2
33-34-35	0
36	1
37-38-39	5
40-41-42	3
43-44-45	2
46-47-48	2
Above 48	0
Total	35
Mean	34
Test Mean	37.5

- Thirteen candidates (37%) obtained scores above 35.
- None had scores below 20.
- The mean score for this group was 34, one point below the acceptable upper limit.

According to the test authors, "scores below 20 suggest too little cooperation by the leader and scores above 35 suggest excessive cooperation by the leader."[110]

The curriculum for this group will have to examine cooperation as a factor of decision making. The participants will have to be shown that excessive cooperation is often an expression of the leader's lack of confidence in subordinates. It also militates against the self-actualization of the followers.

The third sub-score dealing with decision making obtained from the LAE test is identified as "Laissez-faire." This score represents

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[110] Ibid., p. 6.

"the degree to which an individual makes 'leader-small group' situational decisions in which there is complete non-direction by the leader."[111] These results in table form are:

TABLE 3

LEADERSHIP ABILITY EVALUATION, LAISSEZ-FAIRE SUB-SCORES OBTAINED BY MONTREAL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS

Score	Number
0	[illegible]
1	3
2	[illegible]
3	2
4	8
5	3
6	3
7	[illegible]
8	3
9	1
10	0
11	[illegible]
12	0
13	0
14	1
Total	32
Mean	4.3
Test Mean	3.4

- Only one candidate received a score above 12.
- Twelve candidates (34%) received scores below 4.
- The candidates obtained a mean score of 4.8, but the test mean score is 3.4.

Scores above twelve "suggest excessive dependence upon group members for arriving at decisions" and scores below four "suggest too little dependence upon group members for making decisions."[112]

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[111] Ibid., p. 9.

[112] Ibid., p. 9.

Since 34% of the candidates received scores below 4, and since the group mean was 4.8, the curriculum for these candidates will have to illustrate methods of using group resources. Learning situations will have to be created for this group that illustrate the importance of group involvement as a factor in morale building.

The third sub-score obtained from the LAE is identified as Autocratic-Subsissive. This decision making pattern is defined by the authors as that which "characterizes the use of a resource person or committee centered decision process by the subject. Such resource persons are usually not members of the group."[113] This score, then, indicates the ability to use outside resource people, whereas the "Laissez-faire" style mentioned above refers to the use of resources within the group. These results are:

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[113] Ibid., p. 6.

TABLE 4

LEADERSHIP ABILITY EVALUATION, AUTOCRATIC SUB-MISSIVE SUB-SCORES OBTAINED BY MONTREAL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS

Score	Number
0	0
1	2
2	1
3	0
4	3
5	1
6	3
7	4
8	2
9	2
10	0
11	2
12	3
13	1
14	1
15	1
16	0
17	0
18	1
19	0
20	1
21	0
Total	[illegible]
Mean	[illegible]
Test Mean	[illegible]

- Four candidates (11%) obtained scores above 13.
- Nine candidates (25%) obtained scores below 6.
- Six candidates (18%) obtained a score of 6.

The authors of this test state that "scores above 13 represent excessive use of resource persons," and "scores below 6 represent a decision making pattern that makes too little use of resource persons."[114]

The curriculum for this group will have to present learning experiences that illustrate the value and need of resource persons in the decision making process.

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[114] Ibid., p. 6.

The title of the fourth and last LAE sub-score is "Autocratic Aggressive." The authors describe this decision making pattern as "characterizing an ego-centered decision process by the subject. Complete development and implementation of the group activity is retained by the leader."[115]

The following table classifies the scores obtained by this group.

TABLE 5

LEADERSHIP ABILITY EVALUATION, AUTOCRATIC AGGRESSIVE SUB-SCORES OBTAINED BY MONTREAL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS

Scores	Number
0	2
1	5
2	5
3	4
4	6
5	7
6	3
7	3
8	0
Total	35
Mean	3
Test Mean	4.0

- None of the candidates received scores above 8.
- Five candidates (14%) obtained scores of zero.
- Fifteen candidates (44%) obtained scores of zero, one or two.

Scores above eight "suggest excessive use of leader dominated thinking," and "scores of zero represent too little use of leader dominated thinking."[116] Many of the candidates obtained a score of zero or close to it, hence, the curriculum for this group must illustrate the role of the leader and how he makes his contribution to the group

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[115] Ibid., p. 6.

[116] Ibid., p. 6.

decision. Many members of this group indicate that they would be too passive and not play a leadership role.

2. The second standardized test administered to the assistant principals was The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire by Dr. Edwin A. Fleishman, published by the Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago, 1960.

> The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire provides measures of two important dimensions of supervisor leadership, structure and consideration. . . .An important research finding is that these dimensions are independent. This means that some supervisors are high on both dimensions, low on both, or high in one and low in the other.[117]

The author states that the score obtained under the heading "Structure", "reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to define and structure his role and that of his subordinates toward goal attainment."[118] The scores obtained by the assistant principals in Montreal are:

TABLE 6

LEADERSHIP OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE
"STRUCTURE" SCORES OBTAINED BY
MONTREAL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS

Scores	Number
31-32-33	0
34-35-36	3
37-38-39	2
40-41-42	4
43-44-45	2
46-47-48-49	4
50-51-52	4
53-54-55	6
56-57-58	3
59-60-61	2
62-63-64	1
Total	45
Mean	53.5
Average Deviation	6.5

[117] Edwin A. Fleishman, Ph.D., Manual for Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, (Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago, 1960), p. 3.

[118] Ibid., p. 3.

- Twenty candidates (57%) obtained scores between 42 and 55.
- Eight candidates (23%) obtained scores below 42.
- Seven candidates (20%) obtained scores above 55.

Scores below 42 indicate, according to the test author,

". . .individuals who play a less active role in directing group activities" and

> . . .scores above 55 characterize individuals who play a more active role in directing group activities through planning, communicating information, scheduling, criticizing, trying out new ideas, etc.[119]

Only seven candidates obtained scores in this latter category, i.e., only seven indicated a valid perception of the role of structure in administration and leadership. The curriculum content of this in-service program will have to create learning situations that illustrate the value and role of structure.

According to the test author, the mean score of this group, 48.5, ranks them in the 74th percentile for educational administrators. One must wonder about the quality of educational administrators used to establish these norms. This same score, if obtained by "general supervisory personnel" would rank them in the 50th percentile and if obtained by "engineering supervisors" would rank this group in the 40th percentile.[120] The mean score of this group indicates that, by comparison with other educational administrators, they aren't total failures, but when compared with other administrators, much improvement is possible.

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[119] Ibid., p. 3.

[120] Ibid., p. 12.

The second score obtained from the LOQ, titled "consideration", is defined by the test author as a quality which

> reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinates' ideas, consideration for their feelings, and a certain warmth between supervisors and subordinates.[121]

The following table illustrates the scores obtained by this group.

TABLE 7

LEADERSHIP OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE "CONSIDERATION" SCORES OBTAINED BY MONTREAL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS

Score	Number
40-42	0
43-50	1
51-53	3
54-22	4
55-58	7
59-60	5
61-62	2
63-65	2
66	2
67-68	0
69-70	1
70-75	0
75-80	1
Total	34
Mean	60.1
Average Deviation	4.2

- Eight candidates (23%) obtained scores below 56.
- Six candidates (17%) obtained scores above 65.5.

According to the norms supplied by the test manual, a mean score of 60.8 ranks this group in the 31st percentile for educational administrators! "A low score indicates that the supervisor is likely to be more impersonal in his relations with group members."[122]

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[121] Ibid., p. 3.

[122] Ibid., p. 3.

The curriculum significance of this score cannot be overestimated. The whole concept of human relations, especially as it relates to the administrative and leadership functions of the principal must constitute a major component of any in-service program designed for this group.

3. During the same meeting at which the assistant principals underwent the two standardized tests described above, they also completed an opinion survey. (See Appendix E) This questionnaire was designed to sample the opinion of the assistant principals concerning their present responsibilities, viewed as a period of preparation for the principalship. The information supplied by their response adds another dimension to the concept of the learner as a data source. (Thirty-five assistant principals completed the questionnaire.)

These are the findings of this survey:

i- Thirty-three assistant principals (97%) stated that their administrative duties have been assigned to them by their respective principals, not by the School Commission.

ii- Thirty-two candidates (96%) did not consider their duties and responsibilities very well defined by School Commission regulation.

iii- Nine candidates (26%) indicated that they consider their duties afforded them a high degree of administrative experience.

iv- Twelve candidates (35%) did not consider themselves full members of the administrative team running the school.

v- Twenty-seven candidates (79%) indicated that their respective principals seemed to believe that their assistant principal was a full member of the administrative team running the school.

Part C of the questionnaire was an open-ended question requesting suggestions that would help make the period of assistant principalship a more meaningful preparation for the principalship. It was the original intention of the author to design a multiple choice question. Rather than suggest a response, the open-ended format was used hoping that the comments would be more indicative of the opinions of the assistant principals.

Twenty-four candidates (70%) indicated a request for an in-service training program. This is an extremely significant response. Without the suggestion being offered, the great majority of assistant principals indicated a strong desire for administrative training.

Another frequent response to Part C was labelled "Communication." The candidates seemed to realize that communication is a vital administrative skill which needs to be developed. Part D of the questionnaire requested "Other Comments." Almost 70% of those who replied indicated a desire for a clearer definition of the role of the assistant principal. They indicated a wish for more than a mere job description or list of duties. They wanted specific areas of responsibility defined and assigned to the assistant principal.

From what has been stated above, the following factors must influence the curriculum for any comprehensive in-service program for these assistant principals.

i- The assistant principalship must be defined as an educational administrative post and have specific areas of responsibility assigned to it.

ii- The assistant principalship must also be considered a period of preparation for the principalship.

iii- Assistant principals must be given an organized program in educational administration and leadership.

4. A questionnaire was sent to the seventy-five principals of the English Schools of the Montreal Catholic School Commission. This questionnaire was designed to sample the opinion of these principals concerning the role of the assistant principal, with special reference to their own tenure as an assistant principal. (See Appendix G.) Fifty-seven principals (76%) replied. However, seven of this number had never served as an assistant principal, consequently their responses were discounted. Listed below are the findings of this survey:

i- Forty principals (80%) stated that when they were assistant principals, they believed that this post was <u>essentially</u> a time of preparation for the principalship.

ii- Thirty-nine principals (78%) indicated that during their own tenure as assistant principal they did not find their duties well defined.

iii- Forty principals (80%) stated that any administrative experience that they did receive as assistant principal was the result of a working arrangement with their respective principal, rather than the result of Commission directive.

iv- Fifty principals (100%) stated that at the present time they believe that the duties and responsibilities of assistant principals are not well defined.

v- Forty-five principals (90%) stated that some form of organized administrative training should be offered to assistant principals.

Part C of this questionnaire was an open-ended question that the principals were requested to complete. It stated: "Since most assistant principals will eventually be appointed to the principalship, better use could be made of this time by . . . . ." Many principals replied by suggesting that specific areas of responsibility should be

assigned to assistant principals. Another frequent reply suggested a program of in-service courses, especially in administration. Other topics that were mentioned with some frequency in Part C were a study of Commission forms and procedures, regular meetings of assistant principals to help them share experiences and observations. Part D of the questionnaire, titled "Other Comments" usually contained suggestions that were essentially a continuation of those found in Part C.

The responses of the Montreal Principals suggest the following factors for consideration in curriculum development

I - The post of assistant principal must be better defined.

II - An administrative training program should be offered to assistant principals.

III - Specific areas of responsibility should be assigned to assistant principals.

The opinions of the principals are obviously quite similar to those of the assistant principals.

5. Summary. The purpose in using the two standardized tests and the two opinion questionnaires described above was to gather data on the present condition and needs of the assistant principals. This data will serve as input when establishing an in-service program for this group.

The data recorded above indicates that the assistant principals have great need for study and development of the concept of personal relations. This concept must be explored in the light of the administrative and leadership role for which this group is preparing, i.e., the school principalship.

As administrators, their perception of personal relationships will be most evident in the decision making process, in the superior-subordinate climate created by them. This group indicated a serious weakness in this area of effective decision making. The leader-group relationship seemed to be the root cause of this. The low score under the heading "Consideration" is strong indication of this weakness.

Hopefully, this group will realize the importance of the concept "self-actualization." Then it will see the value and need for employing internal and external resource persons.

The high score under the heading "Structure" also indicates an emphasis that dilutes the importance of personal relationships. It indicates a tendency to emphasize routines, forms, structures, as a sign of effective administration. But, this overemphasis is a source of problems on the human and more vital level.

The curriculum for this group, then, will have to highlight a decision-making process that emphasizes the human relations aspect of administration and leadership.

The questionnaire to the assistant principals and principals indicated a need for a job description. Both groups expressed a need for administrative training for assistant principals.

These, then, are the significant factors for curriculum development that have been established using the assistant principals (the learners) as a data source.

2. Cultural Setting

The third data source for curriculum development is entitled the cultural setting. There are many possible approaches to an analysis of this topic. The one chosen here will consist of an analysis of the various laws and by-laws of the various regulatory bodies in Quebec. These various rules and regulations are a response to and a reflection of the procedures and beliefs that constitute the cultural milieu in which the principals must administer their schools.

1. Laws and By-laws. Recent legislation in the Province of Quebec, Canada, affects the concept of the principalship described herein and makes the need for the in-service program more urgent. Provincial legislation, School Commission Regulation, and the Teachers' Collective Agreement all combine to influence the role of the principal.

Section VIII of Regulation I of the Ministry of Education of Quebec states:

> Section IV shall apply to all schools as from the school year 1965-1966.
>
> The other provisions may be applied, in whole or in part in any school where the proper authority, after consultation with the academic personnel concerned, has obtained authorization to this end from the Minister, under such conditions as may be determined by him.[123]

The Ministry of Education will not approve any major reorganization

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[123] The Educational Workshop, Educational Guidebook No. 5 (Government of Quebec, Department of Education, February 1967), p. 29.

within a school unless it receives a request from the "Educational Workshop" of that school.

> The structuring of the educational workshop must take into account the necessity of engaging all the parents of pupils and the entire teaching staff of a school in the process of participation. It must, moreover, adapt itself to circumstances of time and place.
>
> . . . . .
>
> The educational workshop would then operate as a directing committee and as working committees.[124]
>
> The artisans decide to create an eleven-member committee to assume the direction of the workshop. Five of its members are chosen from among the members and five from among the teachers, the principal being a member ex officio.
>
> The directing committee is responsible for:
>
> - Initiating the studies required for the implementation of Regulation 1;
> - Informing the members of the workshop;
> - Preparing the work and carrying out the decisions of the general assembly;
> - Administering the workshop and coordinating its activity with that of the workshops of other schools.[125]

If the principal is a true educational leader, he must know how to work with this group, the Educational Workshop.

Pending Provincial legislation (Bill xx - 29th Legislature), proposes the establishment of school committees for each school in the Province.

> - 622 A Committee is established for each school administered by a school board. . . .
>
> - 623 The functions of every school committee shall be:
>   (a) To encourage parents to co-operate in improving school services;

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[124] Ibid., p. 22. [125] Ibid., p. 23.

(b) to see to the quality of instruction given in the school;
(c) to make to the administrative staff of the school or to the school board such recommendations as it deems pertinent respecting school activities.
It shall also be a function of such committee to participate in accordance with this part in the election of members of the school board.

- 624 Every school committee shall consist of four members if the school is attended by less than five hundred children, six members if it is attended by at least five hundred but not more than one thousand children, and eight members if it is attended by one thousand children or more.
Such members shall be elected by those parents who have children enrolled in the school on the first Sunday of October prior to the election; they shall be chosen from among such parents.
For the purposes of this division, the word "parent" means the father, the mother, or failing them, the guardian of the child.

- 625 The principal of the school and one representative designated by the teaching personnel of the school shall be ex officio members of the school committee; they shall not have the right to vote.[126]

Section 623-B seems to give wide powers to this committee. The legal role of the principal (Sec. 625) seems to be minimal. If this committee is to serve a constructive purpose, he will have to be accepted at least as an informal leader, and exercise his leadership indirectly.

For its own specific objectives, the Montreal Catholic School Commission has encouraged the establishment of "School Consultative Committees" attached to each school. This plan, begun experimentally in 1965, was extended to all schools by regulation in July 1967.

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[126] National Assembly, Bill 60, An Act respecting school organization on the Island of Montreal (Roch Lefebvre, Quebec Official Published, 1969), p. 9-10.

> The problems studied by the consultative committee must deal with school life as exclusively as possible, whether they be problems of pedagogy, discipline or education.[127]
>
> The school authorities are members of the committee ex officio. The number of parent and teacher representatives should be approximately the same and the committee should be comprised of about twelve members.[128]

Once again the principal must meet parents and discuss matters relevant to the operation of the school. If he is passive or hesitant, these committees can easily force him into a position of defending every educational activity that takes place within the school.

It will be the principal's democratic orientation that will enable him to help these committees reach their objectives, and also, by seeing his role in this context, will be be able to exercise any educational leadership.

In October 1967, the Ministry of Education of Quebec signed an entente with the Provincial Teachers Associations concerning salaries, working conditions, fringe benefits, etc. This document states:

> 4-2.01 Members of the teaching personnel of a school shall participate in the pedagogical and disciplinary administration of the school through the formation and operation of a school council.
>
> 4-2.02 Within the school, there shall be a school council attached to the competent authority at this level.

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[127] The School Consultative Committee (Bureau of Information of Montreal Catholic School Commission, Montreal: September 1967), p. 4.

[128] Ibid., p. 6.

4-2.04 The council shall be composed of members of the teaching personnel of the school who have been elected by their colleagues in sufficient numbers to answer the needs of the school. However, the number of members of the council could not be greater than nine (9) nor fewer than three (3).

The principal or the head teacher of the school shall be, by right, a member of this council. The principal may, however, be represented by the vice-principal.

4-2.05 The school council must be consulted on the ways and means of applying in the school decisions of a pedagogical or disciplinary nature emanating from the school board, and, in addition, prior to any decision being made by the competent authority of the school which shall establish or modify the pedagogical or disciplinary organization of the school. The competent authority of the school must also consult the school council on:

a) the general organization of extra-curricular activities;

b) the integration of teachers new to the staff, particularly those who have not taught before;

c) parent-teacher relations;

d) the formulation and application of school regulations;

e) the application within the school of teaching methods and criteria for determining the rating of pupils in their studies.

This school council shall be called upon to study and give its opinion on any matter referred to it either by the competent authority of the school or by a member of the teaching personnel of the school.[129]

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[129] Entente intervenue entre Le Gouvernement du Quebec, La Federation des Commissions Scholaire Catholique du Quebec, La Quebec Association of Protestant School Boards, pour le compte des commissions scholaires, d'une part, et, La Corporation des enseignants du Quebec, La Provincial Association of Catholic Teachers, La Provincial Association of Protestant Teachers, pour le compte des associations d'instituteurs, d'autre part. (Queen's Printer, Quebec, 1969).

On the local level, the Federation of English Speaking Catholic Teachers, Inc., the local teachers' association, has clarified the role of the staff council, in agreement with the Montreal Catholic School Commission.

> 3.02 Staff Council - The Staff Council is a consultative body for the study of problems of a pedagogical, administrative or disciplinary nature, or other problems relating to the proper running of the school; to these ends, it is considered to be an instrument of collaboration and co-ordination. The questions studied are submitted by either the school administration or by the teaching personnel.
>
> 3.03 The Staff Councils' duties are to see to the study of the equitable distribution of the work load among the teachers, the general organization of extra-curricular activities, the integration of new members on the staff (especially beginning teachers), parent-teacher relations, the working out and application of school regulations, the introduction of pedagogical methods.
>
> 3.04 Staff Council - The direction of the school consults the staff council before each important decision, except in case of emergency. The school administration advises the staff council of every decision taken concerning matters which have been previously discussed within the council. The school administration informs the council of the reasons motivating the acceptance or rejection of the recommendations presented.[130]

Once again the school principal finds himself a member of a committee that can help or ruin his tenure as principal. One factor that will determine the total effect of this committee, and also the others mentioned above, will be the role he wishes to play in such.

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[130] Clauses of the Collective Agreement involving the School Council, Federation of English Speaking Catholic Teachers, Inc., 1970, p. 10.

It is quite obvious that these regulations have a strong effect on the role of the school principal. They are also very indicative of the cultural setting in which the principal must work.

2. Present and Future Needs. Another factor influencing the urgency for an in-service program for assistant principals is the rate of promotion that will continue for the next few years.

As stated earlier there are forty assistant principals at the present time. At least eight of this number will become principals by September 1970. If a projection is made for the next five years, at least twenty principals will retire.[131] To this number there can be added another ten who will be promoted to senior administrative posts. Furthermore, the planning department of the Montreal Catholic School Commission has planned for the opening of an additional twelve schools within the next five years. Consequently, during the next five years it is possible that all of the present assistant principals will be appointed to the principalship.

The great majority of present assistant principals will be appointed to the principalship just by force of circumstance. Retirements, promotions and expansion will make it mathematically possible for every present assistant to seek and obtain promotion, qualified or not. The only check on this reality is to establish a procedure that provides exposure to administrative theory and a real test of administrative ability. Hence the urgent need for a realistic in-service program for assistant principals in Montreal.

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[131]See Appendix G.

3. Principal's Role as seen by Principals. Another indicator of the cultural setting within which the Montreal principals must work is found in their own perception of their role. During the past few years, on two occasions, The Association of Catholic Principals of Montreal, Inc., prepared documents which made reference to this question.

In January 1968 this Association, in cooperation with its French counterpart, L'Association des Principaux de Montreal, (all employees of the Montreal Catholic School Commission), began a study of the role of the school principal. Unfortunately, this report was quite negative in that it became a list of the nuisance chores that had accumulated upon the principal during the preceding years.

A significant observation was made about the essential definition of the post of principal. This report stated that no previous attempt had been made to identify or define with any precision the role, the duties, and the responsibilities of the principalship.[132] Likewise, the Provincial Education Acts and Laws were equally vague.

In January 1970, The Association of Catholic Principals of Montreal, Inc., prepared a brief for submission to the Education Committee of the National Assembly of Quebec. The purpose of this brief was to make known to the Government this Association's views relative to Bill 62, proposed legislation to reorganize educational organization on the island of Montreal.

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[132] The Role and Status of the Principal. Brief prepared by The Association of Catholic Principals of Montreal, Inc., and L'Association des Principaux de Montreal, March 1968.

This brief noted "the absence under existing laws of a precise definition of the role of school principal."[133] On the provincial as well as local level, there does not exist a definition of the principalship, nor a concise list of his duties, responsibilities, and authority.

4. Summary. From this review of the factors constituting the cultural setting and their impact on the principals considered here as a data source for curriculum design, some interesting observations can be made.

In spite of the fact that no clear legal definition of the principalship exists, pressures are now existant which force the school principal to be a democratically oriented educational leader. The theme noted in the various laws and by-laws quoted earlier suggest that parents and teachers want some say in the educational decisions affecting his school.

The principal cannot ignore this fact. If he is a well-prepared administrator, he will realize that these consultative bodies can actually be a source of great strength in the administration of a school. But, to achieve this objective, he will have to understand and utilize the decision making style that is required. If he only gives "lip service" to this reality, it will not be too long before these groups realize this and his effectiveness as an educational leader will be in real jeopardy.

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[133] A Brief to the Education Committee of the National Assembly of Quebec Re: Bill 62. Presented by The Association of Catholic Principals of Montreal, Inc., January 1970, p. 6.

If too many principals attempt to by-pass these participatory formulae, it will not be too long before these groups exert further pressure on the various legislative bo ies and demand more than consultation, i.e., actual participation and a real vote in the actual decision.

From what has been stated above, a philosophy of educational leadership is evolving, and suggestions for curriculum content are becoming evident. Relating all these ideas, a realistic in-service program for the future principals of the Montreal schools may now be developed.

CHAPTER III

IN-SERVICE PROGRAM

A. Rationale

1. A Philosophy of Leadership. In any group of people there will usually be found those who dominate and those who follow; those who talk and those who listen; those who control and those who submit. Individuals who dominate, talk, and control are usually considered to be the leaders of the group. By their knowledge of the topic, the force of their personality or their skill at manipulating people, they seem able to exercise some control over the actions of the other members of the group. When the leader is a peer to the other group members, he is identified as an informal leader. If he holds some superior position vis-a-vis the other members of the group, he is said to occupy a position of formal leadership.

For the purposes of this study, the principal is considered as the formal leader of the school. To understand his leadership role it is essential to note the purpose of the school and his role in achieving these goals. Stated very briefly, schools exist for pupils. Schools should be designed so that they offer each individual child those individual and group learning situations that will enable him to discover those concepts and develop those skills that are necessary, useful and relevant to him for survival in and appreciation of the world in which he lives. Hence, the principal's primary responsibility is to

ensure that such situations exist that will enable each pupil to attain these goals in the light of that pupil's potential. The principal is essentially a facilitator, making it easier and more realistic for pupils and teachers to perform their respective functions towards the attainment of these goals.

Since his responsibilities include dealing with people in the task of defining goals and selecting valid means for reaching these goals, he occupies a position of formal leadership. He is an educational administrator. The concept of the principal as an administrator must be understood as a means-ends relationship. He is an administrator because this is a necessary role to attain the objectives of his position. He is not an administrator for the sake of being an administrator. The test of his effectiveness is not the well-ordered routines, forms, procedures, etc. Rather, the real test of valid educational administration will be found in the work climate, the morale, and the attitudes toward change manifested by the activities of pupils and staff.

Leadership is a relationship between two or more people. It is the result of the impact of one personality on another. It exists when the totality of one personality accepts the total personality of another as his leader. While it is possible to identify certain values and skills that effective leaders usually possess and to postulate why these characteristics are effective, leadership cannot be viewed as a material object consisting of a molecular balance of specific atoms. These values and skills contribute to effective leadership only when they constitute part of the total personality of the leader.

The curriculum of the in-service program being designed herein is an attempt to identify these values and skills, and create learning situations that are qualified in the light of the identifiable and specific needs of a particular group. These experiences, to be valid, must be so designed that they offer the candidates the opportunity for self-development. In this way these values and skills will become part of the total personality of these future principals. These candidates must realize that they are not being taught a bag of administrative tricks.

Let us now examine some of the values and concepts that seem essential for effective leadership. The first must be integrity. In the interpersonal relationships that exist in a school, between principal and each individual teacher and pupil, are to have any validity, they must exist in a climate of truthfulness and trust. Using tact if necessary, the principal must be able to speak and act in such a way that those around him know that these actions reflect his perception of things.

A second essential value might be identified as empathy. Principals must believe that all the people within his school are very sacred individuals. This value will manifest itself by his acts of genuine concern for their individual feelings, fears, misfortunes, doubts and also their successes.

Following empathy, yet distinct from it, will be his concept of self-actualization. He realizes that both teachers and pupils perform best, enjoy more success, when they make their contribution to the total learning activity of the school in an unthreatened and self-satisfying

atmosphere. To attain this, he is most conscious of factors that constitute impediments to this realization. He knows that participation is often the key to self-actualization. Consequently, he not only invites participation in many of the educational and administrative decisions that have to be made, but creates a climate wherein involvement in the total operation of the school is considered part of the normal teaching assignment by every individual teacher.

Another value that will effect the educational climate of the school is his own perception of his role. This will manifest itself in the priorities he establishes, made known to the staff by those areas of school life to which he attaches importance. As stated above, learning is the first priority within any school, and the actions of the principal must indicate that. Other aspects of school administration must be seen as means to this end. The value system of the principal must reflect this hierarchy of values. He must view himself as an educational administrator, and the emphasis is on the word "educational."

These basic values are essential for the school principal, and they will be manifest in his actions. To facilitate this, certain administrative skills have been identified. These skills will be useful to the school principal only as a means of creating the climate that the value system described above is designed to create. These skills, if not an actualization of these values, are "but sounding brass and tinkling cymbal." It will not be too long before the staff and students realize this, and a serious atmosphere of suspicion, distrust and non-involvement will develop.

In the previous chapter, the seven administrative skills identified by Jack Culbertson were indicated. It should be noted that when an administrator causes these processes to operate properly, he is considered to have developed that specific skill. If a particular administrator creates an environment in which the decision making process takes place effectively, it can be stated that the administrator has developed the skill of decision making.

Most authors who deal with this phase of administration also identify these skills, directly or indirectly. They are: 1) communication, 2) decision making, 3) motivating personnel and building morale, 4) innovation and change, 5) planning and programming, 6) assessing organizational performance, and 7) research and development. These seem to identify the totality of the administrative skills required. It should be noted, however, that the extent to which some of them are necessary will depend on local conditions. For example, it might happen that in a larger school district such matters as "innovation and change" and "research and development" are primarily central-office functions. Administrators in such circumstances will not use these skills to the same degree as administrators in smaller areas where the principal is expected to perform these services.

The degree to which these skills will form part of any relevant in-service program for future principals will be qualified by the needs of the candidates following the program. These specific needs for the assistant principals in Montreal were established in Chapter II, in the sections dealing with the "learners" and "cultural setting."

B. Curriculum Content

1. Values. The first value identified earlier in this chapter

was that of integrity. Essentially, the candidates will be exposed to an analysis of this topic as outlined above. However, some of the data identified in the previous chapter will qualify this concept. None of the data indicated a lack of this quality. While it might be safe to presume that it is present, to avoid ambiguity, this in-service program will have to illustrate its value and basic importance for effective leadership.

The second value identified above was labeled empathy. While none of the standardized tests measured this quality directly, indications were present under other headings. The low score under "consideration", the score obtained under "laissez-faire" and also that under "autocratic-aggressive" would suggest that this leadership value will demand considerable development for this group.

The concept of self-actualization was identified as a requisite for effective leadership. The test scores dealing with decision-making suggest that as a group these candidates appear to be unable to establish the climate within which others would develop this and hence make their total contribution. Likewise, their scores under "structure" and "consideration" indicate a lack of comprehension of this concept and its development.

Another concept of significance was identified as the principal's perception of his role. While the tests that were used offered little data in this area, much was learned about the role of the principal in Montreal from the analysis of the "cultural setting." This established that principals in Montreal must exercise their leadership within a very democratically-oriented framework. Again, the test scores dealing with "consideration", the use of internal resource people, and participatory decision making all indicated that this group has much to

learn in this area. It must be a major theme of this in-service program.

2. Skills. The tests that were used were such that they provided much more relevant data in this area. Skills are probably more easily measured than values. "Communication" was identified as the first skill. Trust and empathy are values that make total communication a possibility. The principal must be able to communicate without fear with his own superiors, his teachers, his pupils, and all other members of the staff. While decision-making is often identified as the central and essential skill of administrators and leaders, they will not be aware of the need for making a decision, they will lack relevant data, if some or all lines of communication are closed. Furthermore, it has been established that relevant education must be responsive to the societal needs. This is another indicator of the importance of communication as an administrative skill. Several test scores indicated factors that might weaken effective communication.

The test score dealing with "structure" indicated that as a group the assistant principals tend to interpret administration in terms of procedures, forms, routines, etc. Demonstrations will have to be designed and presented to them to establish that structures are a means to an end. Too much structure leads to impersonal relations and dilutes true communication. The general memo is never as effective as the spoken word. A principal must be concerned about the feelings of his staff. This is usually unavailable with the written word. But, on a personal basis, he is usually able to sense their feelings immediately.

In the analysis of decision making that follows, several of the factors that dilute effective decision making are also problems of communication.

The second administrative skill was identified as "decision-making." Formal leaders are, by virtue of the position they occupy, essentially decision makers. The literature has established that the style of decision making adopted by the leader will have great impact on the environment within which people work. It has also been established that individuals make their maximum contribution to any joint effort when they possess a sense of belonging, when they believe that they are wanted, needed and appreciated. This environment makes self-actualization possible. True participatory decision making is a requisite for this climate. For effective leadership, principals must see participatory decision making as the most valid style to create optimum environment within which teachers make their maximum contribution.

The test scores indicate that decision making is a curriculum topic that will need lengthy and detailed consideration. Table one indicated that 45% of the present assistant principals would be ineffective leaders because of their present perception of decision making. In fact, it will be recalled that the mean score for the group was almost the cut-off score for an effective decision making pattern. The sub-score dealing specifically with a democratic style of decision making indicated that almost 30% of this group showed a marked tendency towards too much cooperation by the leader. This attitude creates two problems. First, it displays (or at least will be interpreted as) lack of confidence by the principal in the teachers. Secondly, it dilutes the possibility of the teachers enjoying the self-satisfaction of working out an assigned task on their own.

This suggestion of confidence in the group was also manifest in the test sub-score under the heading "laissez-faire." The score obtained by this group indicated that they have too little dependence on the group. Related to the school situation, this suggests that they are not convinced of the value of participatory decision-making. Also, this score suggests that they are not convinced that the teachers really have anything of value to contribute. These attitudes militate against involvement and full cooperation. The in-service program will have to establish the fallacy of these attitudes.

It should also be noted that beyond the value intrinsic to participatory decision making, the findings from the review of the cultural setting indicate that the principal has no choice but to use a democratically oriented pattern of decision making. This is a further reason for an intensive development of this topic.

The third administrative skill identified by Culbertson, and referred to earlier, is "Motivating personnel and building morale." The philosophy of morale and motivation used in this curriculum will be that of Maslow referred to earlier in this work. Human acts are motivated in terms of need satisfaction. Motivation improves as needs are satisfied, and is highest when individuals are functioning on the highest level of the Maslow scale with success and satisfaction. At this level an individual perceives himself as becoming his total self, developing his full potential, fully challenged, needed, wanted, appreciated, loved.

The task of creating such a work climate will seem impossible to many future principals, especially at first glance. However, as this

concept of self-actualization is explored, hopefully, if they are true leaders, they will realize that their own self-actualization as a leader will be a reality as they facilitate the self-actualization of others, the teachers, and in turn that of the pupils.

This skill, and the values upon which it is based, as defined above, is a very difficult aspect of effective leadership, yet most vital. The test scores indicated several qualities of this group that will influence the manner in which this topic will be presented to them. The test score titled "Structure" indicated that this group has tendencies toward a concept of leadership that would over emphasize routines and procedures, etc. Such an atmosphere militates against an atmosphere of representation, of following routines, as the goals of the school. Rewards and punishments exist in relation to structures, instead of educational activities. Self-actualization cannot be experienced by competent teachers in such an environment. The test score titled "Consideration" suggests the same conclusion, but from a different perspective.

Likewise, the scores under the heading, "Autocratic-submissive" indicated a shallowness in respect for resource people. This results in the omission of valid and relevant data from the decision making process, and this in turn denies access to new ideas, and support for the ideas of some of the teachers. They are not receiving support from a normal source. They believe that their ideas are not receiving the attention deserved. This leads to frustration, withdrawal, i.e., further and further away from self-actualization.

The fourth administrative skill mentioned above is "Administering change." The "change" referred to here deals with planned change. In this context, change occurs whenever the determined objectives are changed, or a new methodology is adopted to reach a previous objective. Since educational thought is responsive to social conditions, and curriculum content must include the new discoveries of the various disciplines, education is in a constant state of change. The two areas mentioned above, society and new knowledge, are experiencing change at an increasing rate. Educators must be master change agents if they are to fulfil their mandate. The concept of the principal as an educational leader can almost be measured by his effectiveness as a change agent.

The principal will realize the need for change from several sources. His own perception of his school will often indicate such need. The insights of the teachers will often indicate to him the need for change. Outside experts and consultants are another source that can suggest change. However, test scores referred to in the previous chapter indicate that this group would not be fully responsive to the suggestions of the teachers and outside resource people. They will have to realize the role and value of these individuals as sources of information about the need for change. Even when the principal's own perception suggests the need for change, this group would lose some of the effectiveness that should be theirs. This fact was noted under the heading "laissez-faire" which indicated a weakness in the use of "leader dominated thinking."

The tendency of this group to concentrate on "Structure" suggests that many of them would fear the insecurity that often accompanies any significant change. Change is often seen as a challenge to the status quo. Some of these future principals might shy away from change viewing even the suggestion of change as an attack on the validity of a structure that they had developed.

Empathy plays a vital role in the administering of change. As a principal becomes aware that a particular plan is a valid innovation, especially when viewed as an educational experience for the pupils, he must attempt to "feel" the reactions of the teachers and pupils to this change. The skills of communication, decision making, and morale building are most vital in implementing change. Failure in any of these areas might actually cause a valid and necessary innovation to be totally ineffective.

The three remaining administrative processes identified by Culbertson, (planning and programming, assessing organizational performance, and research and development) will not constitute part of the basic in-service curriculum developed here. This is not to suggest that these topics are not important or relevant. However, several factors, particular to the Montreal situation, suggest that the immediate in-service program will be more effective if these topics are not treated as part of the initial and core program.

These topics have already been studied by most of the present assistant principals. They usually form part of the curriculum of any teacher training program. As teachers, most of the present assistant principals have actually practised them to one degree or another.

These skills are not as essential and as continuing as the previous four. The four skills developed in area two-b above constitute the essence of administration and are continually present in the administrative activities of the school principal. The latter three are present on a sporadic basis. Consequently, they can be part of a continuing in-service program, but need not be part of the core in-service program.

In Montreal, it should be noted that number five (planning and programming) and number seven (research and development) are primarily central office functions. Consequently, they need not be considered as essential and basic for each principal. Nevertheless, over a period of several years they are skills that the school principal does use.

For these reasons, these processes are included as specific topics for the curriculum of the in-service program designed herein. However, their importance is not denied. They will constitute topics for a continuing in-service program that will be referred to later in this study.

To this point, this chapter has outlined the curriculum content of a relevant in-service program for the present assistant principals in Montreal. It can be stated that what is outlined above sounds good in theory, but of almost equal significance will be the instructional techniques that will be used so that these theories will actually dominate the administrative behavior of those who follow this in-service program, especially in the years ahead when they are school principals.

C. Instructional Procedures

1. Objectives. The essential objective of this in-service program is to offer the present assistant principals a series of relevant educational experiences so designed that they will enable them to incorporate the values and skills identified above into their individual administrative behavior patterns. They will have to proceed from a process of identification of these values and skills to a level of action based on them.

Egon Guba has identified four phases or stages in this continuum: research, development, diffusion and adoption.

> Research has as its basic objective the advancement of knowledge. . . .Development has as its basic objective the identification of operating problems and the formulation of solutions to those problems. . . .Diffusion has as its basic objective the creation of awareness about new developments and the provision of opportunities for their assessment along whatever dimensions practitioners may deem necessary. . . .Adoption has as its basic objective the adaptation of a development to the local situation and its installation therein.[1]

These four steps will constitute the instructional procedure that will be followed in the development of each of the skills mentioned above. The values that were identified and defined above will serve as the rationale for the concepts of these skills that will be presented as such to those following this in-service program. Since the only true test of the value of this in-service program will be measureable only several years hence, when these assistant principals are principals, it will be necessary to establish objectives for each phase of the program that are

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[1]Egon G. Guba, "Development, Diffusion and Evaluation", in Knowledge Production and Utilization in Educational Administration, Terry L. Eidell and Joanne M. Kitchel, eds. (Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon Press, 1967), p. 42

immediately measurable. These immediate behavioral objectives will be identified at each phase of the program. They will usually involve some form of self analysis by the candidates of their simulated administrative behavior.

a) Research phase. The specific objective of this phase is to identify and define a specific administrative skill. This will usually be done without specific reference to the specific needs of education. Using assigned readings and the study of industrial management movies, candidates will be encouraged to identify the skill in question, define, establish criteria for evaluation, identify the values required for effective use of the particular skill. Once several candidates have reached a level of facility acceptable to the director of the in-service program, he will prepare them to begin the Developmental Phase.

b) Developmental phase. The objective of this phase is to apply the knowledge of the values and skills identified above to administrative problems involving the school and the principal. The candidates will attempt to identify the right and wrong administrative acts described in the particular case under study. The candidates will be expected to explain (in terms identified in the research phase) the various skills and values demonstrated in the case, the rationale for considering some administrative acts valid, others invalid, etc. Where there is an invalid administrative act, the candidates will be expected to suggest the correct one, defend their position, and postulate the results of their suggestion. All this must be done using the definitions and assumptions that they identified in the research phase.

> The use of the case enhances participation and interest among the learners and provides a common frame of reference as a focus for all members of the training group.[2]

When several of the candidates demonstrate some facility in this activity, the program director will make the necessary preparation for them to proceed to the Diffusion phase.

c) Diffusion phase. The objective of this phase is to enable the candidates to practice and to evaluate their own performance in one of the skills under study. (The term diffusion with reference to knowledge usually suggests the transmission from the researcher to the practitioner: in this case, both are the same individual. Therefore, diffusion here must be understood as meaning the transfer from the theoretical to the practical by the same individual.) Ralph Tyler, dealing with the relationship between curriculum content and a behavioral objective of that curriculum, states:

> For a given objective to be obtained, a student must have experiences that give him an opportunity to practice the kind of behavior implied by the objective.[3]

The essential format that will constitute this phase of the in-service program is usually referred to as "role-playing."

> Role playing generates interest and trainee involvement through dramatized activity. Players get the feel of emotional reactions generated by their methods of handling the situation.[4]

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[2]Dalton E. McFarland, Personnel Management: Theory and Practice (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1968), p. 315.

[3]Ralph W. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 42.

[4]McFarland, p. 315.

The program director will prepare "roles" that are meaningful and relevant. Some of the committees outlined in the previous chapter under the heading of "cultural setting" offer excellent settings for these activities. The director will select five or six candidates. To one of them he will assign the role of principal. To the others he will assign various roles typical of the various types of individuals that might be expected to be present at such meetings. The director will assign a specific topic or problem for discussion. The meeting begins. The entire proceedings are video-taped.

The program director will stop the meeting at the point he considers most appropriate. The acting principal, and all the other participants will assess in specific terms the administrative behavior of the acting principal. When the director is satisfied that the candidates (especially the acting principal) have presented an accurate analysis of the administrative behavior of the candidate in question, the video tape of the proceedings will be played on the monitor. The director will use the monitor to illustrate the validity of the evaluation made by the candidates.

It is during this phase, when the candidates are actually practicing some aspects of the administrative process that the program director will make use of the specific needs of this group as determined by the standardized tests and cultural setting referred to in the previous chapter.

It is assumed that the majority of candidates following this in-service program will follow the various phases outlined above for each of the four administrative processes identified earlier. Once a

candidate has demonstrated to his own satisfaction and that of the program director that he has acquired the ability of self-evaluation in the administrative processes, and that he performs them with some degree of confidence, the candidate is considered ready for the final phase of the in-service program. It must be noted that candidates will move to this final phase only after they have reached the third phase for each of the administrative skills that constitute the curriculum content of this program.

d) Adoptive phase. The objective of the adoptive phase is to enable the candidate to demonstrate that the values and skills, identified throughout this chapter as constituting the essentials of effective educational administration, are now part of his thinking and behavioral pattern. The only valid test of this is found in genuine administrative responsibility in a real life situation. The security of the case study and role playing environment are removed.

> The only real training for leadership is leadership: you do not learn it by being an assistant, or a deputy, only by being a boss. The best way to learn how to run a big organization is by leading smaller ones.[5]

The candidate is assigned a specific administrative responsibility, with parameters such that the responsibility is real. Procedures for evaluation are incorporated into this assignment. This assignment is referred to in this study as the Field Project. The specifics of this project, especially with reference to the adoptive phase of the instructional approach outlined herein, will be developed in a subsequent section of this chapter.

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[5]Anthony Jay, Management and Machiavelli (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston; 1967), p. 191.

Up to this point, this chapter has contained a philosophy of leadership that will serve as a rationale for this in-service program, highlighted the specifics of the curriculum content of it, and explained the instructional phases that will be followed for this program to reach its objectives. What follows is a "walk-through" that will illustrate the sequence of experiences that will be available to the assistant principals who follow this in-service program. It must be noted that while it is hoped that these learning experiences will result in the stated objectives, other methods might also be used to reach these objectives.

2. Walk-Through. a) Introductory Phase. The test score results indicated that this group is in great need of organized activities if they are to become effective educational leaders. Rather than begin this program with an analysis of specific administrative values and skills, an introductory phase will be presented to them. The objective of this phase is to enable the assistant principals to realize that administration is both an art and a science consisting of identifiable values and skills.

To help create a learning situation that will help candidates reach this objective, they will view the movie, The Managerial Grid, produced by the University of Texas, 1963. This movie portrays five administrative styles and analyses the degree of commitment, creativity, and conflict usually created by each style. Following this presentation, the director will divide this group into sub-groups of six or seven candidates. Their assignment will be to prepare an answer to this question. What is administration? As each group develops an acceptable answer, they are further directed to identify acceptable and non-acceptable administrative behavior. Following this, they are requested

to identify some relevant values and skills of administration. Those individuals who reach this level are then formed into groups of six or seven and proceed to a study of the administrative processes.

Those candidates who do not seem ready to proceed might be encouraged to view the movie again, or view another movie, e.g., Concepts of Management, prepared by the American Management Association.[6] Between sessions, reading assignments relevant to the topic and level of each will be assigned by the program director.

b) Sample Lesson. When six or seven candidates have completed the introductory phase to their own satisfaction and that of the program director, they begin a series of activities centered on the administrative skills identified above. Outlined below is a possible approach for dealing with one of these skills. The steps that are described here can easily be adopted for use in the development of the other administrative skills. Communication is the skill selected for this sample lesson.

The general objective of this segment of the in-service program is to offer the candidates learning situations that will help them realize the importance of communication as an administrative process, and the values upon which this skill depends. The specific objective of this phase of the program is to help candidates develop their own use of this skill in simulated administrative settings.

Research phase. The introduction to "Communication" will consist of the movie entitled Communicating Management's Point of View, produced by the Bureau of National Affairs, 1965. This movie illustrates

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[6]Many films dealing with administration are available from The Canadian Film Institute, Ottawa, Canada, and the University Council for Educational Administration, Columbus, Ohio.

the importance of effective communication as a manager tries to change people's beliefs, attitudes and behavior. Some of the values required for effective communication are also well illustrated.

This movie is followed by a discussion period, during which the candidates are expected to identify the concept of communication and the components of this skill. If necessary, the program director will assign relevant readings on this topic. Once the program director is satisfied that this group has reached the objectives of this "research phase", he assigns the necessary reading for the next phase.

Developmental Phase. The objective of this phase is to relate the general administrative concept of communication to the specific realities of educational administration. The methodology demonstrated herein centers on the case-study approach.

Heartbreaks and Headaches (case no. 11 in Culbertson's work[7]) is an example of a prepared case study that might be used at this point. This case illustrates the problems caused by poor communication in an educational setting.

Working in groups, the candidates will be requested to note all examples of communication contained in this case. They will also be requested to evaluate each instance of communication using the terminology and definition of communication established during the research phase. Some of the problems that were identified in the previous chapter dealing with the learner as a data source will probably be manifest at this point as the candidates verbalize their perceptions of communication

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[7]Jack Culbertson, Paul B. Jacobson and Theodore L. Reller, Administrative Relationships - A Casebook (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1960), p. 255.

as described in this case. The program director must be aware of this factor and make use of the opportunity to utilize this situation.

When the program director realizes that the candidates have transferred the general concepts of communication to the specific concepts of educational administration, he will make the necessary preparations for them to proceed to the third phase.

Diffusion phase. The objective of this phase is to enable the candidates to practice, in simulation, the skill of communication as described above, and also to enable the candidates to evaluate their performance of this skill. The structure that is employed here to achieve this objective is known as "role-playing."

One member of this group of six or seven is assigned the role of principal. The other members are assigned various roles typical of those found in small groups. The setting for this role-playing session is a staff council meeting. The principal wants the staff to adopt a type of modular scheduling for the next school year. He believes that preparations must begin at once.

It must be remembered that this game is being played to illustrate communication, not decision making. The principal is expected to send his messages clearly and respond to the messages of the others in the group. The assessment of the acting principal's performance must be made in this light. The entire session is video-taped. At its conclusion, the "principal" evaluates his administrative behavior, the other candidates and the program director assess both his administrative behavior and his assessment of his performance. The video-tape is played

back on the monitor to help validate the "principal's" performance.

Listed below is a sample of the roles that might be used in designing the various games for this diffusion phase.

- The aggressor: Criticizes, deflates status of others, disagrees with others aggressively.
- The blocker: Stubbornly disagrees and rejects others' views, cites unrelated personal experiences, returns to topics already resolved.
- The topic jumper: Continually changes the subject.
- The tester: Raises questions to "test out" whether the group is ready to come to a decision.
- The Harmonizer: Mediates differences of opinion, reconciles points of view.
- The Playboy: Uses group's time in showing off, telling funny stories.
- The Tension Reliever: Uses humor at appropriate times to draw off negative feelings, calls for a break at appropriate time.[3]

When the program director concludes that one or several candidates has (have) completed this phase satisfactorily he will make the necessary preparations for them to begin the research phase of the next administrative skill. It is only when a candidate has completed the Diffusion phase of all the administrative skills, and shown some growth in the value system described above that he proceeds to the Adoptive phase, which shall consist of a field project.

c) Field Project. The purpose of this field project is to enable the candidate to demonstrate his administrative skills and values in a real life situation. He is also expected to be able to assess his administrative performance. Since this phase is designed to illustrate to what extent the candidate has incorporated the theories developed

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[3]Some other "roles" that might be used: Withdrawer, Recognition seeker, Dominator, Devil's Advocate, Compromiser.

in the previous phases of the in-service program, it is titled the Adoptive Phase of the program.

The candidate, in consultation with his regional director, selects some educational innovation that he will implement, (e.g., curriculum revision, initiate modular scheduling, prepare for differentiated staffing.) This assignment is to last for three or four months. The candidate is the director of the task and does not report to the school principal in matters pertaining to this project.

The candidate and the regional director plan the project and agree upon the educational objectives of the undertaking, criteria for evaluation, resources needed and available, etc.

The candidate and the program director study the proposed field project to assess the administrative implications. They agree on the administrative objectives, establish criteria for evaluation, and settle other matters that might concern this field project viewed as an administrative activity.

The candidate then initiates the project. The regional director and the program director may view its progress from time to time and offer suggestions and review the development of the project. The school principal, however, plays no direct administrative role in the execution of this project.

When the time allotted for the field project is completed, the candidate and the regional director review the educational objectives that were established initially. In the light of these objectives, they prepare an assessment of the field project. Likewise, the candidate and the program director review the administrative objectives

of the project and prepare an assessment to the extent to which they were reached. These two assessments should be entered into the candidate's official dossier. If the candidate applies for promotion to the principalship, the selection committee should be strongly influenced by these two documents.

It must be understood that not all candidates will progress through the various phases of this program at the same rate. Some will require more help at various points in the program. If some candidates cannot follow the program, and leave educational administration, this must not be considered as necessarily a failure on the part of the program. What has been outlined above, should improve the administrative competence of the future principals of the schools in Montreal. One must wonder if this in-service program is sufficient.

D. New Concept of the Assistant Principalship

1. Rationale. The in-service program outlined above contains certain weaknesses that, if not corrected, would dilute much of the effectiveness that it should have. If assistant principals were permitted to follow the program on a voluntary basis, many who need the program might not bother to follow it. Many of those who might volunteer to follow it, might be erratic in attendance and not obtain the full benefit of the program. It could also happen that successful candidates might have to remain in an ineffective position for three or four years after completing the program before they have any valid administrative responsibility.

What follows is a new concept of the assistant principalship. It is designed for two specific purposes. First, to involve the

assistant principal in the educational and administrative activities of the school, and second, to make this period a continuing, meaningful and organized period of preparation for the principalship.

3. The Training Assistant Principal. The Montreal Catholic School Commission should declare fifteen of its present forty assistant-principalship posts as Training Assistant Principalships. Candidates would apply specifically for appointment to the TAP program. While the present conditions for appointment to assistant principalship might remain, the Commission should not hesitate to admit candidates who lack some of these traditional requirements, but who have demonstrated leadership ability. This program would last for two years and appointment to the principalship would be made only from its successful candidates.

The status and willingness of the principal would be the factors that would be used to establish which fifteen posts would constitute the TAP posts.

> The key figure in a school administrative internship is the principal in the school where the (assistant) principal is assigned. Since these schools are selected for the advanced educational thinking that characterizes their program, the leaders of these schools have the attitudes and the priority system which principals of the future must develop.[9]

The TAP program should be structured in the manner that follows. The Commission would select fifteen of the present assistant-principal positions, and declare that these are for candidates of the TAP program. These schools must be selected on a basis of the leadership quality of present principals and their willingness to participate in this project.

The role of the school principal in this plan is that of providing the opportunities for the TAP candidate to participate in the educational activities of the school, and active participation in the

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[9] Trump, op. cit., p. 23.

administrative duties of the school. Upon appointment, it is the responsibility of the TAP candidates to discuss these objectives with the principal and establish the terms of reference for their execution.

Shortly after this, the TAP candidates report to the locale at which the in-service program outlined above will take place. During the first year of the TAP program, candidates will follow the in-service program outlined above with reference to the study of the four administrative skills, and other administrative topics as required. Since they actually have some administrative responsibility, they will consider these exercises more meaningful. They will also bring to these activities a perspective developed by their perception of the problems and situations that constitute the school day.

During their first year of the TAP program, the candidates will concentrate on their respective assignments within the schools to which they have been assigned, and follow on a regular basis the study of administrative processes offered by this in-service program. Depending on the problem of time, the program director may add other topics for these candidates if these seem relevant for the candidates.

At the end of the first year of the program, those candidates who are considered successful will be transferred to another school involved in the TAP program. This will be done to allow the candidates the opportunity to view another successful principal and study his educational and administrative values and skills. It is during the first month or two that the TAP candidates make preparations to begin their Field Project as defined above.

Upon conclusion of the Field Project, TAP candidates will

continue to meet on a regular basis, review and assess the TAP program, and in cooperation with the program director, read, study, practice any aspects of educational administration they believe relevant to them.

In order that some record of all these experiences might be available and help the individual candidate view his leadership potential, at the beginning of the TAP program each candidate will initiate a personal portfolio. Into this portfolio he will incorporate any item relevant to his performance.

The program director might begin the program by asking each candidate to complete some standardized tests dealing with leadership, or personality traits that are relative to leadership. These test results and their significance would become part of the portfolio.

It will be recalled that some evaluation took place at the conclusion of each phase in the development of the administrative skills. Another evaluation took place at the conclusion of the field project. The two principals, with whom the TAP candidates will have worked, will also be requested to write out an assessment of the TAP candidate's leadership potential. All these documents should be included in this portfolio.

When a successful TAP candidate applies for promotion to the principalship, he should present this portfolio. It should be a major factor in determining the suitability of a particular candidate for promotion to the principalship.

In order that this total in-service program for assistant principals be implemented without unnecessary delay, several influencing factors must be considered.

3. Time Factor. If the Commission wishes, it could easily begin this TAP program during the 1970-71 school year. It would not be too

difficult to determine the fifteen TAP posts, and reassign the fifteen TAP candidates to these schools. Of the initial fifteen TAP candidates, seven or eight will be required to fill principalships by September 1971. Once the fifteen candidates have been selected, a committee of senior administrators will have to select the seven more promising leaders. These seven will have to follow a one-year TAP program. The other eight candidates will begin the first of the two-year TAP program outlined above.

During year one of the TAP program, candidates will have to be released from their schools for several days each month to follow the in-service program. It is hoped that candidates would be available for two consecutive days every three weeks. For the program to be beneficial the following time table must be considered as the minimum time required.

Introductory phase	2 days
Communication	4 days
Decision Making	6 days
Morale	4 days
Administering Change	4 days
Total:	20 days

Using the formula stated above, two consecutive days every three weeks, and allowing time for the development of special topics, this phase of the TAP program will occupy almost the time available during the full school year.

4. Selection Factor. At the present time, the Montreal Catholic School Commission has one selection procedure for appointment to the assistant principalship. What is suggested herein is the creation of two

classes of assistant principals, one as is (hopefully even this post can be improved), and the other, the TAP.

When selecting candidates for the TAP it is recommended that such posts be declared open and both teachers and present assistant principals be considered as applicants. Some criticism might be made of the possibility of teachers being admitted directly to the TAP, and becoming principals within two years after leaving the classroom. At the present time this is possible and does happen. Using the TAP route, the new principal will be much better prepared for the responsibilities of an educational leader.

It is essential that the directors of the TAP program have continuing access to the findings of current research in the behavioral sciences. To accomplish this, it is recommended that some form of affiliation with the new Faculty of Education of McGill University be established.

Likewise, the directors of this TAP program should be encouraged to make use of the resources of the Center for the Study of Educational Innovation, located at the School of Education, University of Massachusetts.

This field study was undertaken with the objective of making the role of the assistant principal one of participation in the educational activities of the school, and one of preparation for the principalship. At first it appeared that this second objective could be reached by designing a series of in-service activities that would help assistant principals learn of the values and skills that constitute educational administration. While the basic in-service program designed

herein was a step in the right direction, it was barely sufficient, and almost ignored the first objective, that of making the role of the assistant principal one of participation in the educational activities of the school. Hence, it has been necessary to develop the total program and label it the TAP.

As this study progressed, many related topics that deserve serious attention unfolded. The next chapter will identify some of these and contain a formal report of this field study that will be presented to the Montreal Catholic School Commission.

CHAPTER IV

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

A. Recommendations for Further Study

In the development of this field study, many other topics of varying degrees of relevance were noted. While not within the terms of reference of this study, these are allied topics and should be explored.

1. Define the Role of the Assistant Principal. Several of the data sources referred to earlier in this work indicated the complete absence of definition of the role of the assistant principal. While the TAP program outlined herein makes at least two years of assistant principalship a useful educational and training experience, much remains to be done for those not following the TAP program.

2. Other Skills and Values. While this TAP program offers basic foundation in the study and practice of administrative values and skills, other administrative and leadership skills and values must be studied and adapted to the needs of this group to make the total leadership development program more complete. Some of these concepts are: Planning and programming, Assessing organizational performance, Research and development, Management by objectives, Evaluation of work climate, Staff-line relationships, PERT (Program Evaluation and Review Techniques), Performance appraisal, Decision trees, sensitivity training, etc.

3. Study of Routines. In addition to the administrative needs of this group, some attention should be given to an analysis and study of the various school commission regulations, forms, and procedures.

4. Cultural and Educational Needs. As stated earlier, there is a three-fold aspect to effective leadership as a school principal: effective leader, educated man and knowledgeable educator. This field study has dealt with the first. A fully comprehensive administrative training program should also study the candidates' needs in the other two areas and offer whatever experiences are necessary and relevant for future principals.

5. Principals. This field study and the recommendations outlined above deal only with the needs of the assistant principals. The total picture of administration and leadership should be studied with reference to the needs of the present principals. Some of the objectives and procedures outlined above could easily be adapted to suit their needs, once these needs were established.

6. Other Administrative Offices. In addition to the principals, there are more than one hundred other educators performing varying degrees of administrative and consultative functions within the Department of English Classes of the Montreal Catholic School Commission. (Regional and assistant regional directors, Personnel officers, Curriculum directors, Subject co-ordinators and animators, section heads, and department heads - each of these individuals occupies a position of educational leadership.) The specific needs of each classification should be studied and relevant programs designed to satisfy these needs.

7. Evaluation. Five years after the initiation of the in-service program designed herein, (or any of the other programs suggested in this section), a scientific evaluation of it should be undertaken. It has been noted several times throughout this field study that while immediate and often measurable objectives for the various phases of the program were identified, the true value of this in-service program could not be established for several years hence. This evaluation could only take place once some of those who followed this program had been a school principal for a few years. Five years from the date of initiation of the program would appear to be the earliest that such an evaluation could be undertaken.

B. Report to the Montreal Catholic School Commission

Report to: The President (MCSC)
The Vice-President
The Commissioners
The Director General
The Deputy Director General
(English Classes)

Re: The needs of the future principals of the English Schools of the Montreal Catholic School Commission

1. The Situation. At the present time there are forty assistant principals in the English Schools of the Montreal Catholic School Commission. Due to retirement, promotion and expansion, it is mathematically possible for all of the present assistant principals to be promoted to the principalship within the next five years. A recent survey indicates that these assistant principals find that their present responsibilities are such that they are not necessarily performing a valid educational function within their school, nor are they receiving any organized

administrative training. Yet, they must have these qualifications if they are to be effective school principals.

2. The Needs. A review of relevant literature, and an analysis of the cultural setting (Montreal) establish certain values and skills that are required for effective educational leadership. Two standardized tests and a questionnaire were administered to the assistant principals to help establish their specific needs. This data was used to establish a core curriculum for an in-service program for the present assistant principals. However, for the ideal that is desired, a much more comprehensive program must be offered to the assistant principals.

3. The Solution. In the light of the findings of the field study upon which this report is based, it is essential that a two-year period of preparation be required of all candidates for the principalship. During these two years, these candidates will serve as assistant principals in schools where the principal is known for the effectiveness of his leadership.

During the first year, these candidates will follow a series of organized educational experiences designed to help them identify and develop in the light of their respective needs those values and skills required for effective educational leadership. During part of the second year of this two-year program, the candidates will direct some educational activity of significance. The candidate's performance during these two years is evaluated at various times. This evaluation should be the criteria for promotion. During these two years, the candidate is considered to be following the Training Assistant Principalship program (TAP).

If the Commission is willing to make a genuine commitment to effective administrative training, for the assistant principals, (and the many other administrative and staff officers), it will realize that the TAP program (and any other administrative programs) must have a full-time program director. This director must have the experience and education that qualify him for this position and personality that makes him acceptable to those who follow the program. He must receive the rank, salary, budget and support that indicate a serious committment on the part of the Commission to the objectives of the TAP program.

It is the opinion of this writer that the program director should have equal status with the highest level of administrator that might follow some administrative program. Hence, the recommendation is made that the program director be classified at the level of a Regional Director.

Another indicator of the committment of the Commission will be reflected in the facilities and budget that are made available for this entire project. Some space designed to meet the needs of the various group sizes and containing the various furnishings required must be prepared and be located such that it supports rather than hinders the activities of the program director and the objectives of this program.

Before presenting the budget, the Commissioners are reminded that, while the original objective dealt with the needs of the assistant principals, the plan as it now evolves suggests the appointment of a full-time program director and the creation of a learning lab designed

to satisfy most of the administrative needs of all personnel whose positions require such training.

4. The Budget.

- Initial Expenses	
Renovations etc. (1-2-)	$ 4,000.
Video Tape and monitor	[illegible],000.
Movie Projector (1-mm-)	[illegible]00.
Total	$ [illegible],00.
- Annual Expenses	
Salary (Director)	$[illegible],000.
Expenses (Director)	[illegible],000.
Secretary	[illegible],000.
Movie rental, periodicals, membership, etc.	[illegible],000.
Building overhead, etc.	[illegible],000.
Total	$[illegible],000.

Respectfully submitted,

Alan Stockton.

C. Conclusion

This field study was undertaken to establish a relevant in-service program for the future principals of the English schools of the Montreal Catholic School Commission. Present Montreal Catholic School Commission promotion procedures indicate an emphasis on the personal education and the educational experience of the candidates. Without denying the importance of these two dimensions, this field study was undertaken to explore the concept of the principal as an educational administrator and leader.

A review of the literature and allied research was undertaken to establish concepts of the principal as leader. A brief study of the cultural setting as it affects the school principal was undertaken to add qualifications that would make this evolving concept of the

principal more relevant. The third data source that was used was the future principals themselves, that is, the present assistant principals in Montreal. Using two standardized tests and a questionnaire, some of their basic administrative training needs were identified.

A basic in-service program in educational administration and leadership was designed for the assistant principals in Montreal using the data sources referred to above. However, throughout this study, it became increasingly evident that a series of exercises dealing with one or other administrative value or skill would not constitute a co-ordinated and continuing program. Furthermore, the assistant principals had indicated in one of the surveys that some of them were not even actively involved in the educational activities of the school. There appeared to be too many loose ends that would dilute the effectiveness of this in-service program. It became evident, as the study evolved, that greater control would have to be established over the total training of future principals.

To reach this objective, the Training Assistant Principalship (TAP) program was designed. This two-year program, under the supervision of a full-time director would help make the period of assistant principalship a more useful educational role in itself and an organized period of preparation for the principalship.

If the TAP program described in detail in the previous chapters is adopted by the Montreal Catholic School Commission, and if the cooperation and contribution required by the various parties to the program are made willingly, within a few years the English schools

of the Montreal Catholic School Commission will have an in-service program that will help future principals prepare for the increasing administrative and leadership responsibilities demanded of them. This will be so because the principals of these schools will have a vision of education and a concept of their role that will keep the focus of education where it belongs, the education of children. The principals of these schools will know what this focus means, and be fully capable of keeping it there.

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LA COMMISSION DES ECOLES CATHOLIQUES
DE MONTREAL

THE MONTREAL CATHOLIC SCHOOL
COMMISSION

AUGUST 18, 1969.

Mr. Alan STOCKTON,
50 Meadow Street,
AMHERST, Mass. 01002.

Dear Mr. STOCKTON:-

Following on our conversation of July 18 and your telephone conversation of August 18, I wish to state that I consider the work which you propose to me as a thesis to be of value not only to yourself but to the general literature of administration, whether it be business or educational and, thus, I consider your proposal to be a good thing.

I will forward letters to Messrs. Malone and Murphy seeking co-operation of the Regions with your work.

I would like to point out in this letter that my personal endorsation of your work towards a thesis is not to be considered as an endorsation of the Commission because it is not the policy of this Commission to endorse the thesis of any scholarship candidate.

Trusting that this information will be found to be satisfactory,

I remain,

With perdonal good wishes,

Yours sincerely,

John T. McIlhone,
Associate Director General and
Director of English Schools.

JTMc/gmb

APPENDIX "B"

August 19 1969

Mr. Edmund J MALONE
Director of Administrative Region "B"
Room B-200.

Dear Mr. MALONE:

Mr. Alan STOCKTON, one of our High School Vice-Principals, is proposing to do some work dealing with the characteristics of leadership and the latent potential of leaders for his Doctoral thesis at the University of Massachusetts

In order to do this, he would have to have access to the Vice-Principals personnel in your Regions. Would you be kind enough to allow him to call this personnel together and oblige

I remain,

Yours sincerely

John T McIlhone
Associate Director General and
Director of English Schools

JTMc/rmb

APPENDIX "C"

AUGUST 18, 1969.

Mr. Walter MURPHY,
Director of Administrative Region "A",
2055 Oxford Street,
Montreal.

Dear Mr. MURPHY:-

Mr. Alan STOCKTON, one of our High School Vice-Principals, is proposing to do some work dealing with the characteristics of leadership and the latent potential of leaders for his Doctoral thesis at the University of Massachusetts.

In order to do this, he would have to have access to the Vice-Principals personnel in your Regions. Would you be kind enough to allow him to call this personnel together and oblige.

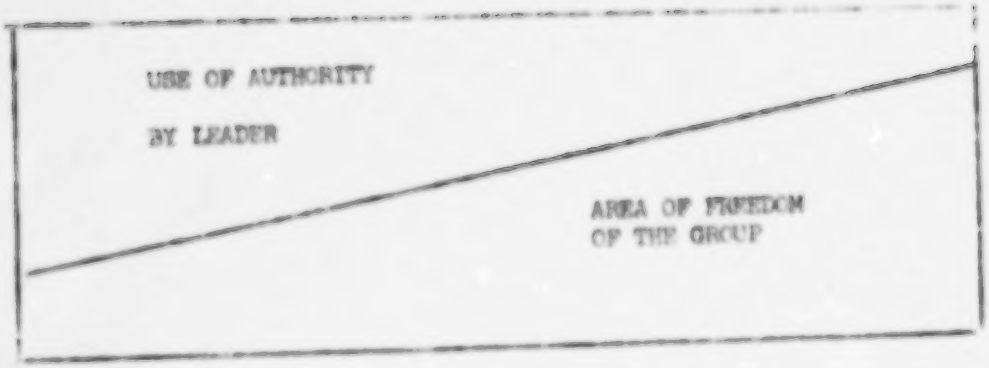
I remain,

Yours sincerely,

John T. McIlhone,
Associate Director General and
Director of English Schools.

JTMc/gmb

APPENDIX "D"



Leader decides announces decision	**Leader** "sells" decision to group	**Leader** announces decision permits questions	**Leader** presents tentative decision; consults group and decides	**Leader** presents problem asks for ideas; decides	**Leader** presents problem and boundaries; group decides	**Leader** releases to group all the authority which he possesses to identify the problem; group decides.

APPENDIX "B"

Questionnaire to Metropolitan School Boards

1. Number of pupils in your school district - i-High School.....
   ii-Elementary .....

2. Number of School Principals
   i-High School.....
   ii-Elementary .....

3. Number of Assistant Principals
   i-High School.....
   ii-Elementary .....

4. In your school district, are principals appointed from the ranks of the assistant-principals? yes..... no.....

   Comments: .....

   .....

5. In your school district, are assistant principals appointed from the ranks of the teachers? yes..... no.....

   Comments: .....

   .....

6. Do you have any in-service program for TEACHERS who plan to become principals or assistant principals? yes.....no.....

   Comments: .....

   .....

7. Do you have any in-service program for ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS who plan to become principals? yes.....no.....

   Comments: .....

   .....

--If you answer 'yes' to numbers 6 and/or 7, would you please send me any literature describing or relative to these programs.

--If you have any releases describing the requirements for the posts of principal and assistant principal would you send me copies of same.

Other comments: .....

.....

.....

APPENDIX "F"

Questionnaire to Assistant Principals

A. Personal Information:

1. I taught school for ..... years.
2. I have been an assistant principal for .....years.

B. Opinion Survey:

1. Any administrative duties assigned to me are:

   Commission assigned .... Principal assigned .....

2. By Commission Regulation my duties and responsibilities are:

   Very well defined .... Vaguely defined .... Poorly defined ....

3. My duties are so organized that they afford me real administrative experience

   Very much .... Partly ..... Not at all .....

4. I consider myself a member of the administrative team running the school

   A full member ..... Partial member ..... Not a member .....

5. I believe that my principal considers me a member of the administrative team responsible for the running of the school:

   A full member ..... Partial member ..... Not a member .....

C. My tenure as an assistant principal, considered as a time of preparation for the principalship, could be improved by:

.....

.....

D. Other Comments: .....

.....

.....

APPENDIX "C"

Questionnaire to Principals

"A school principal should be an educated person, a knowledgeable educator and an effective manager/leader of people." The questions below refer to this last quality.

A. Personal Information:

1. I have taught school for .....years.
2. I was an Assistant Principal for ..... years.
3. I have been a principal for ..... years.

B. Opinion Survey:

1. When I was an Assistant Principal, I believed that this post was essentially a time of preparation for the principalship.

   Yes..... No .....

2. When I was an Assistant Principal, I found my duties were defined:

   Very well ..... Haphazardly ..... Not at all .....

3. The administrative experience, if any, that I received as an Assistant Principal was more the result of a working arrangement with the Principal than organized experience built into the post of Assistant Principal.

   Yes ..... No.....

4. The duties and responsibilities of an Assistant Principal are defined by School Board regulation:

   Very well..... Vaguely ..... Poorly .....

5. Some form of organized administrative experience should be part of the program for Assistant Principals (future Principals)

   Very definitely..... Not sure ..... Not at all .....

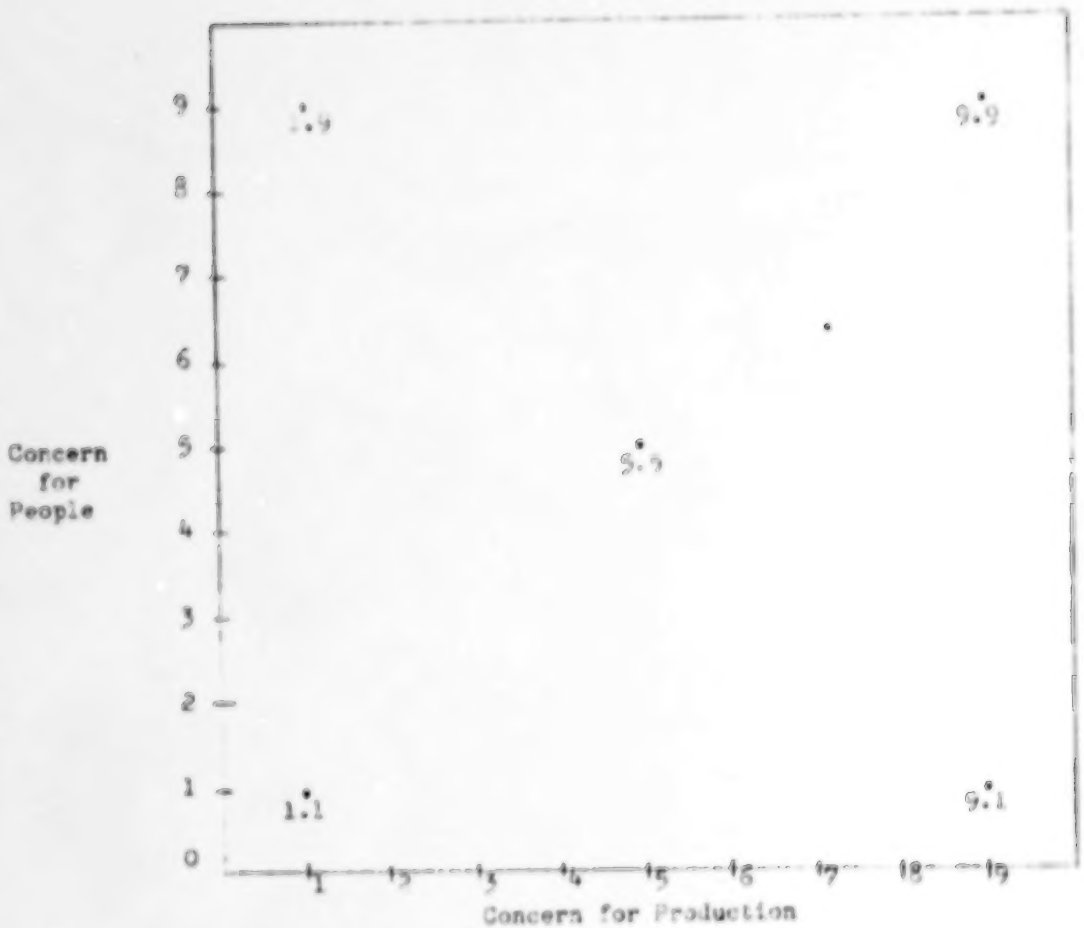
C. Since most Assistant Principals will be eventually appointed to the principalship better use could be made of the time as Assistant Principal by .....

D. Other Comments: .....

.....

APPENDIX "B"

The Managerial Grid (Blake & Mouton)[1]



1.9 - Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.

1.1 - Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.

5.5 - Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.

9.1 - Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

9.9 - Work accomplished is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.

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[1] Blake and Mouton, op. cit., p. 10.

APPENDIX I

IDENTIFICATION OF SKILLS, CONCEPTS, AND VALUES RE: ADMINISTRATION AS ESTABLISHED BY THE AUTHORS QUOTED IN THE REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

AUTHOR	SKILLS				CONCEPTS & VALUES			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Owen, R.			X					
Babbage, C.								X
Towne, H. R.				X			X	
Taylor, F.		X	X					X
Gantt, L.			X				X	X
Robb, R.	X	X	X					
Emerson, H.		X	X	X		X	X	X
Fayol, H.			X				X	X
Gilbreth, F.		X	X					
Follet, M.					X	X	X	
Mayo, C.	X	X	X	X			X	X
Barnard, C.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Druker, P.	X	X	X			X	X	
Maslow, A.	X	X	X			X	X	X
Tannenbaum, R.	X	X		X				
McGregor, D.	X	X	X				X	X
Argyris, C.	X		X	X		X	X	X
Blake, R. and Mouton, J.	X	X	X	X		X	X	
Griffiths, D.		X		X		X	X	X
Likert, J.	X						X	X
McFarren, A.		X	X	X	X	X		
Bavelas, A.				X		X		
Hamacher, D.				X		X		
Culbertson, J.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Sachs, D.	X	X	X	X	X	X		
Nagle, J.					X	X	X	X
Bradfield, L.							X	X
Trump, L.							X	X
Jordan, R.			X	X	X	X		

Codes: 1. Communication
2. Decision Making
3. Morale Building
4. Administering Change
5. Integrity
6. Empathy
7. Role Perception
8. Self-Actualization

APPENDIX J

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE LEADERSHIP ABILITY EVALUATION[1]

Face Validity. This aspect of validity as concerned with the degree the LAE measures the decision making pattern or social climate structure which an individual uses as a leader. The LAE purports to measure the decision making pattern. This is evident to those taking the LAE and to specialists in test construction.

. . .

In the assessment of face validity, six research psychologists evaluated the social climate structures used in the four part scores of the LAE; without exception there was agreement that the leadership patterns were incorporated in the structure of the LAE.

. . .

Status Validity. This validity is the degree to which the total score discerns between groups of outstanding leaders and typical individuals. . . . Multiple point bi-serial R's by use of the "discriminant function" described by Horst (13) range from .696 to .730 when groups of outstanding leaders were compared with other groups. When leaders were compared with individuals of average or lower I.Q.'s, or where compared individuals were of junior high school age or younger, the R_{pbis}'s ranged about .400; where typical individuals were 17-18 years or older and above average I.Q.'s the R_{pbis}'s were in the low .300's and high .200's. Data in Table 1 are representative of this latter described typical group and are provided for use in developing a composite score on the LAE which discerns optimally between typical individuals and outstanding leaders, when age and intelligence are held fairly constant.

. . .

Reliability. Reliability indices were computed by the split-half method and corrected by the Spearman-Brown correction formula. The corrected Pearson r's (r_{tt}) are presented in Table 4. The total score on the LAE has reliability coefficients ranging from .73 to .91. The more experienced more intelligent and higher social status groups have higher reliability coefficients.

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[1] Cassel and Stanzik, op. cit., p. 1, ff.

APPENDIX K

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE LEADERSHIP OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE.[2]

Reliability. Internal consistency reliabilities were obtained by the split-half method (correlations for odd-and-even-numbered items within each scale, corrected for full length of each scale). These, together with test-retest reliabilities for two samples, are given in the test manual.

. . .

Independence of the scales. An important feature of this questionnaire is that the scores on each scale are independent of each other. (Table This is partly a function of the factor-analysis background of the questionnaire, which revealed these two patterns as independent. It is also a function of careful item analysis and selection. . . .

The median of the correlations in Table 2 is around zero. Thus, the "halo" and "social desirability" tendencies, common biases in instruments of this type, do not seem to be operating in these scales.

. . .

Validity. The LOQ was developed to maximize construct validity. The two dimensions measured by the questionnaire were developed by factor-analysis procedures, and item analysis was carried out to provide homogeneous measures of Consideration and Structure. This questionnaire can be used when an assessment of these characteristics is desired for a certain individual or group.

. . . .No cases were found where low Consideration goes with good performance (for example, with low turnover, good employee attitudes, low stress, or high proficiency ratings). Thus, how Consideration scores are more often indicative of an undesirable situation. The results with Structu depend more on the situation.

. . . .In general, the pattern that emerges as most undesirable for many situations is the one in which supervisors are low in both Consideratio and Structure. At least one study has shown that such managers are more likely to be bypassed by subordinates and may not even be seen as the functional manager (Fleishman, Harris, and Burtt, 1955). The High Structure Low Consideration supervisor is more likely to show more turnover, grievance and stress among his subordinates.

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[1]Fleishman, op. cit., p. 1 ff.

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